DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 335 271 SO 021 399

TITLE	Evaluation and Follow-Up of Policies, Plans and Reforms of Education: Round Table V.
INSTITUTION	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France). Div. of Educational Policy and Planning.
REPORT NO	ED-90/CONF-401/COL-47; ED.90/CPA.401/RT.V
PUB DATE	90
NOTE	126p.; A paper presented at the UNESCO International Congress on Planning and Management of Educational Development (Mexico City, Mexico, March 26-30, 1990).
AVAILABLE FROM	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 7, Place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Evaluative/Feasibility (142) -- Speeches/Conference Papers (150)
LANGUAGE	English; Spanish
EDRS PRICE	MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	Educational Administration; Educational Change; *Educational Development; *Educational Planning; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; *International Educational Exchange
IDENTIFIERS	UNESCO

ABSTRACT

The proceedings from a round table held at an international symposium focuses on the planning and management of educational development. The following papers are included in this document: "Overall View on the Evaluation of Educational Plans and Reforms (Ingemar Fagerlind); "Evaluation and Research Capacity-Building in Education Meeting the Needs of the 1990s" (Vinayagum Chinapah); "Evaluacion de la calidad de la educacion en America Latina" (Evaluation of the quality of education in Latin America) (Johanna Filp); "The Methodology and Instruments of Evaluation" (Mohamed Monir Morsi); "Evaluation of Policies, Plans, and Reforms of Education in Bangladesh (Md. Fazlul Karim Choudhury). (DB)

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PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

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ROUND TABLE
EVALUATION AND FOLLOW-UP OF POLICIES, PLANS AND REFORMS OF EDUCATION

MESA REDONDA
EVALUACION Y SEGUIMIENTO DE POLITICAS, PLANES Y REFORMAS DE EDUCACION

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INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS
"PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT"
(Mexico City, 26-30 March 1990)

CONGRESO INTERNACIONAL
"PLANEAMIENTO Y GESTION DEL DESARROLLO DE LA EDUCACION"
(Mexico D.F., 26-30 de Marzo de 1990)

ROUND TABLE V

MESA REDONDA V

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Overall View on the Evaluation of Educational
Plans and Reforms
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Ingemar Fagerlind

Evaluation and Research Capacity-Building in Education
Meeting the Needs of the 1990s
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Evaluación de la calidad de la educación en América Latina
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The Methodology and Instruments of Evaluation
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Evaluation of Policies, Plans and Reforms of Education
in Bangladesh
by
Dr. Md. Fazlul Karim Chowdhury

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OVERALL VIEW ON THE EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANS AND REFORMS

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OVERALL VIEW ON THE EVALUATION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANS AND REFORMS

Crucial to any kind of reform is the ability to evaluate or determine the extent to which it has accomplished what is set out to accomplish. The analysis of educational phenomena ex post facto for the most part is less desirable than a careful strategy of monitoring and evaluation of a program from the beginning. According to Cooley and Lohnes (1976:3) evaluation is a process by which relevant data are collected and transformed into information for decision-making, while House(1980) defines evaluation as comparative, concerned with standards, involving value judgments, and is directly oriented to the decision-making process. Evaluation produces knowledge specific to a particular context and the success of evaluation research is contingent on the extent to which it has been relevant for policy-making (Wolf, 1987). More important for evaluation success is the extent to which evaluation research rigorously conforms to the accepted standards and norms of research itself. Policy decisions, programs and reforms are only as good as the quality of the research upon which they are based.

Evaluation can be directed to the analysis of specific programs as well as to the performance of entire systems. Evaluations can and should cast their nets wide. Not only are the effects o specific educational inputs, organizational contexts and outputs legitimate evaluation targets, but so too are the assumptions, ideologies and theories underlying educational practices. Evaluation research is just as likely to be critical of current practices as it is confirmatory.

Evaluation research cuts across theoretical paradigms and research methodologies. Evaluations quite frequently focus on the evaluation of education policies within one country, but evaluation research can also be comparative, as for example the studies of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) which, since the end of the 1950s, have investigated student performance in subjects such as science and mathematics (Postlethwaite, 1987).

An often neglected dimension of planning decisions, and of the evaluation of planning, has been the realization that all such activities are ideologically grounded. The underlying assumptions upon which plans are based are as much political as they are scientific. A clear specification of development goals, and the role that formal education should play in achieving such goals, is important for evaluation research.

The methodology of Evaluation Research

Even the best data can fail to provide an evaluation and understanding of the performance of an educational system if inappropriate methods are used, or if the results produced by particular methodologies are misunderstood or misinterpreted. There is no single appropriate evaluation methodology, rather the methodologies are appropriate to any given set of evaluation goals and data. The work of Cooley and Lohnes (1976) focuses on statistical procedures used in evaluation research. House (1980) has identified eight different evaluation models and a wide range of evaluation methodologies. Sherman and Webb (1988) have collected some papers that give a careful and systematic review of the current possibilities of qualitative methods in educational research.

School Effectiveness Evaluations

Survey studies of school effectiveness and other input-outpu studies have used linear regression strategies (Creemers an Scheerens, 1989). Educational production functions were develope to analyses of schools and educational systems. A simpl regression model for studying educational production can be state in the following form:

$$Y=f(F,I,P\ S)$$

where the educational output Y is a function (f) of various inputs, including family background (F), early ability (I), peer group influence (P), and school factors (S).

Many evaluation studies which have had an impact on educational policy have used linear regression and the educational production function in one form or the other. In industrialized societies the works of Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972,1979) are well-known examples, while reviews of educational production function studies by Simmons and Alexander (1980) and Fuller (1987) include examples from non-industrialized countries. Jencks et al. (1972), Keeves (1972), and Fägerlind (1975) used path analysis in their studies, an analytic method introduced into the social sciences by Blalock (1964, 1969, 1971), and Duncan (1966, 1969). The statistical procedure of partial least squares (PLS), a so-called soft-modeling technique, developed by Wold and described by him (Wold,1982) has been used in several of the IEA studies while a hard-modeling procedure developed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1977; 1988) have been used by Munck (1979), Lindén (1986), and Tuijnman (1989). In spite of criticism,(Freedman,1987), regression analyses and path-modeling will continue to be utilized in many future evaluation studies. However, a number of specific problems must be kept in mind when assessing past studies and designing future ones.

The first problem concerns the level at which the data are aggregated and analyzed; this can range from societies, regions, schools and to individual teachers and students. The inferences which can be made from analyses of aggregate data are limited and caution must be exercised when inferences about individual-level effects are attempted. As an example virtually all studies of teacher effects, school and teacher variables have been aggregated at the school level (proportion of teachers with university degrees, mean years of teaching service, etc.), while student achievement scores have been collected and analyzed at the individual level. Thus while the unit of analysis has often been the individual student, measures of the effect variables have often been aggregated school level data. The assumptions implicit in this procedure are clear:all school facilities and teacher characteristics are assumed to have equal effects on all students, and that the distribution of resource inputs at the school level is independent of student characteristics.

There is evidence to indicate that this assumption is rarely met in real-life school processes: students do not receive equal benefits from school resources or their teachers. One way of getting around this difficulty would be to link the individual teacher and student in the analysis or perhaps make individual teachers the unit of analysis, a strategy almost never utilized in school-effect research.

Another problem in linear regression studies is the case where relationships between variables are non-linear and interactive. The assumption of linearity assumes no threshold effects. Interactions are quite common in evaluation studies. Different teaching methods might give different results among students with different ability. Some methods might give the same result independent of ability, while others might give very different results in different ability groups.

Given the failure to take into account interactions or threshold effects may lead to conclusions that there is no relationship between the variables when the fact is that there is strong relationships between some variables at some levels. A study of Iranian grade 2 students by Ryan (1974) found that the relationship between teacher ability and student achievement was strongest in rural areas and among the most disadvantaged children.

There are, of course, other limitations in the use of the educational production function in evaluation and policy-related research. The model could be mis-specified and there could be conceptual and measurement limitations of data. This method is comparatively difficult technically, several assumptions are usually difficult to satisfy, while the policy-makers sometimes find the results too technical and difficult to understand.

These limitations of linear regression and educational production function approaches should not mean that they represent useless strategies for evaluation research. Rosenholtz (1985) argues that these studies cannot easily be dismissed because of the remarkable consistency in their findings. If the assumptions underlying linear equation models are carefully examined and research designs are constructed to overcome these limitations, then much can be gained in knowledge about educational processes which may be useful for policy, and for the improvement of the educational system with regard to the desired goals of development. However, alternative strategies for evaluation research also exist.

Alternative Evaluation Strategies

Many attempts to overcome the limitations of input-output studies for evaluation research have focused on refinements to previous methodological procedures. The need to improve measurement of variables and to expand the number of variables in evaluation models have been emphasized by many researchers. Greater sensitivity to variations in socio-economic status structures between societies, as well as the many school outputs other than academic achievements, are important examples.

The use of longitudinal data in evaluation research have been rare. There have been some significant longitudinal studies, however, which merit mention. The Malmö longitudinal study, which began with 1,542 grade 3 school-children in 1938, continues to provide important information on schooling and careers in Sweden, not only for the original sample but now for their children. This study is trying to investigate the relationship between socioeconomic data, intelligence, education and life career at different age levels (Husén, 1969; Fägerlind, 1975; Tuijnman, 1989). Comparisons with longitudinal studies with younger participants make it possible to evaluate the impact of educational reforms of the 1960s and 1970s. The Wisconsin study began in 1957 with a survey of all high-school seniors in the State. Subsequent follow-up have not only produced important data on schooling and careers in the United States, but the study itself has been the center for the development and diffusion of important methodological procedures, particularly the use of path analysis in the social sciences (Sewell and Hauser, 1975, 1980). In 1976 a random sample of Form 5 students (N=321) in Botswana took part in an achievement study by the National Commission on Education. The students were studied again in 1979, and tracers on their achievement included data from 1974. The 5-year interval then provided information for the study of early career development in a developing and rapidly changing society (Kann, 1981). In 1970 Schiefelbein and Farrell (1982) surveyed a sample of ten students from each final year class of primary schools in

Chile (approximately 3,500 students). Seven years later they were re-surveyed in order to study inequalities in access and attainments in Chilean education and the labor market. In what they call the largest longitudinal study in a developing nation, they found that schooling exercises an important effect in the transition from school to work. A study of transition from school to work in Australia has been performed by Williams et al. (1980,1981).

Qualitative Evaluation

In sharp contrast to the quantitative approaches thus far discussed, qualitative evaluation methods offer an alternative which directs more attention to in-depth analyses of process rather than structure (Sherman and Webb,1988). There has been considerable recent development in the use of qualitative methods, ranging from case studies to ethnographies, and including observational, documentary, and qualitative interview data. The contrast between the two kinds of approaches is found in table 1 which also highlights the main features of each. Patton (1980), who has described at length the use of qualitative evaluation methods is correct when he states that the challenge to the researcher is to select the methods most appropriate to the concerns of the policy-maker and to the specific evaluation situation.

TABLE 1 *Approaches to Evaluation Research*

Dominant approach	Alternative approach
Quantitative	Qualitative
Concerned about reliability	Concerned about validity
Objective	Subjective
Distant from data	Close to data
Focused on impact of components	Holistic analysis
Concerned about outcomes	Concerned about process
For scientists	For practitioners
Large samples	Case studies
Interested in generalizations	Interested in uniqueness
Tends to ignore interactions	Examines individual-treatment interactions

Source: Chinapah and Fägerlind, 1986: 34–35

Examples of Evaluation of Educational Plans and Reforms

National Evaluation

Several countries have started national evaluations and in 1987 the Swedish Government instructed the National Board of Education to develop the content and forms of a national program of evaluation. Special attention was to be given to those parts of the education system which did not consist of examinations, as well as to the way in which the different parts of the program were related to each other and how they interacted. The purpose of the national evaluation is to enhance the knowledge of schools and adult education and to compile input documentation for decision-making at different levels (SNBE, 1987). The evaluation is to supply information concerning the state of the school system and is to form a basis for analyses and debate concerning schools, their activities and results. Both the effects of the school system and the conditions governing school work will be elucidated. Assessment of productivity and efficiency will also be an essential part of the national evaluation. Systematical and continuous collection, processing and dissemination of information about the state and goal achievement of the school system with reference to the Education Act and the National Curricula has started.

To achieve a holistic picture of school activities, the national evaluation will include both external conditioning circumstances and the internal activities of schools, the development of the students' knowledge and skills and their social and emotional development and attitudes. According to the National Board of Education, the collection of this information will be done through various channels. County education committees, the pupils themselves, their teachers and school management will all be giving information. A wide variety of collection methods will be used. Written questionnaires and tests will be supplemented with direct questionnaires, both of the school as a whole and of the teaching of individual subjects. Other information will also be used, e.g. official statistics from Statistics Sweden as well as data derived from local evaluations. The Government and the Parliament have recommended the National Board of Education to concentrate on the compulsory school during an initial phase. A similar evaluation and assessment of the upper secondary school and the municipal adult education will be carried out later. The first round, started in the academic year of 1988/89, was experimental in nature and was conducted in grades 2 and 5. Reading, writing, arithmetic, art education and music were fields included in the assessment of grade 2 students. In grade 5, the subjects were Swedish, Mathematics, English, Civics, Art and Music. Assessment of the students' knowledge and skills will be recurrent, and one round of assessment will be carried out every three years The assessment in each round will relate to a small representative sample of classes. Data concerning the students' health status, current statistics, special student follow-ups and demographic data, all from Statistics Sweden, will supplement the National Evaluation.

The evaluation findings will be summed up every three years. They will be used by the National Board of Education in its long- range planning, in work on curricula and for ongoing development work. The results will also be disseminated in the basic and in- service training of teachers. It is hoped that the results will be used by teachers in their classroom planning and for the production of teaching materials. The overriding purpose of the National Evaluation is to give the Government and the members of the Parliament a picture of the situation and development in the school system as well as input data for political decision to be taken.

International Comparisons

The most well-known comparative studies are the ones run by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational

Achievement (IEA) even if the International Association for Educational Assessment in Princeton has more recently started comparative studies of a similar nature. IEA was founded in 1959 and a mathematics study in 12 countries was performed in 1964 and the first report was published by Husen (1967). In the report hypotheses and findings were presented under three major headings:(1) problems of school organization;(2)problems related to curriculum and methods of instruction; and (3) effects of social factors. During the early 1970s six subject areas (science education, reading, literature, french as a foreign language, english as a foreign language and civic education) were investigated in 22 countries. Several countries looked upon their results as some kind of evaluation of the reforms that had taken place since the second world war. Nine volumes were published between 1973 and 1976. During the 1980s a second mathematics study and a second science study were performed as well as a classroom environment study and a written composition study. In the beginning of the 1990s a reading/literacy study will be performed.

The IEA studies have managed to develop a large set of methods for measuring different aspects of attainment. In the cognitive field the main problem has been to construct instruments that can be used for international comparisons. In addition to the more conventional tests of knowledge, new domains of achievement have been explored, for example, patterns of response to literature and written communication. The IEA has generated an enormous increase in our knowledge of educational systems in the participating countries - their organization, enrolment, resources, and practices. The influence on policy has gone through a multistage process. The interest of the mass media in overall national results - the "Olympic Games" aspect - has started a public debate. Ministers of education and other persons in charge of the system have been forced to react to these results. Negative results always seem to get more publicity than do positive ones. More close analyses of the national data have been performed as a result of preliminary results, and in some cases concrete explanations have been found and reforms with effects on classroom practices are undertaken. IEA has built an organization for international cooperation in educational research which has worked for 30 years. Some 40 educational systems have been involved which is a major achievement (Härnqvist, 1987). The IEA studies could also be criticized from many points of view. They are extremely expensive, take too long for publishing their results, and have difficulties to adjust to systems in developing countries. However, more and more developing countries are joining IEA and their Ministers of Education and researchers seem to think that such studies are important. One obvious thing is that the centers taking part have a possibility to build up a national competence in survey research, with a bias in the direction of large-scale quantitative surveys.

Evaluation of Literacy Campaigns in Mozambique 1978-82.

At the time of national independence in June 1975 Mozambique had an illiteracy rate of 93 percent, which was one of the highest in the world. The expansion of the formal education system and mass literacy campaigns received to priority by the new government. The spread of literacy was regarded as one important factor to improve social, political and economic conditions, and to help develop human and material resources.

In a population that had been denied education during colonialism, the ground seemed fertile for a strong commitment to mass literacy campaigns. Literacy was looked upon as one of the most important means of promoting national unity by mobilizing the people politically and by spreading Portuguese as the national language to facilitate cross-national communication.

During the first five post-independence years, many of the local political committees which had been set up in residential areas and workplaces took the initiative for organizing literacy classes with local teachers and local resources. In this way literacy classes flourished all over the country (Lind, 1988). At the same time a centrally organized and coordinated strategy was prepared by the State. The first National Literacy Campaign was launched in July 1978 and very soon it attracted more than two hundred thousand participants

Teaching material had been prepared for the campaign. administrative structures had been set up in each province and district, and tutors had been given short duration training. However, to continue the National Literacy Campaigns information was needed both at central and provincial level. A statistical monitoring system was established to feed information to the organizers about initial enrollments, drop-out rates, number of persons tested and passed on the tests. As in other similar systems, many technical problems arose. Over and above statistical information different evaluation studies were performed which utilized both qualitative and quantitative methods. The case study apprcach was used to gather information from priority Literacy Centers. Methods involved in the case studies included: participant classroom observation, semi-structured interviews, achievement tests, lesson preparation meetings with tutors, interviews on variations in learning progress, observation of the learners' exercise books, and pretesting supplementary texts and exercises. The results and recommendations from these case studies were discussed and used at the national Directorate of Literacy and Adult Education when decision were taken about pedagogical changes in class exercises and in providing teaching instructions in the Tutor's Guide.

From 1979 to 1983 five main case studies were performed. The first one was conducted in 1979 on the Maputo branch of a recently established state-owned fishing company. The second was performed in the Maputo harbour section of the Railway Company of Mozambique. The third case study in 1981 was directed towards a group of Frelimo party members which included 17 females, recruited for intensive literacy training in Nampula, the capital of the province with the same name. The fourth case study was completed in 1982 at an experimental literacy course when the final version of the new syllabus and some textbooks were tried out. The fifth case study was performed in 1983 within the framework of an integrated rural development project in the province of Maputo, where there was a total of 700 literacy students, the majority female, divided into 13 instruction classes.

The case studies used during the evaluation of the Literacy Campaigns in Mozambique played an important role in improving the quality of literacy teaching. However, these studies might also have been instrumental in stressing the importance of academic achievement. Ironically the attempts to improve the literacy learning among the enrolled adults at the same time might have contributed to decreasing political commitment and motivation.

TABLE : 2 *Literacy Campaigns in Mozambique 1978–82. Targets, Enrolments, Outcomes.*

	1st NLC 1978/79	2nd NLC 1980	3rd NLC 1981	4th NLC 1982
Enrolment	>260 000	324 000	310 000	194 000
Target	110 000	200 000	300 000	500 000
Tested	320 000	199 000	117 000	55 000
Passed	140 000	119 000	81 000	37 000
Target	100 000	200 000	200 000	200 000

Source: Lind (1988), p. 69.

The targets, enrollments, and outcomes of the literacy campaigns in Mozambique are found in table 2. The internal efficiency of the campaigns played a minor role for their continuation. The case studies made it possible to understand how important were the actions or lack of actions of local leaders and government agencies for literacy class attendance and results. Political commitment among the leaders was found to be more important than money spent. Through the information gathered it was possible to better understand the role of both the external and the internal factors related to difficulties in the campaign. During a few years, such information had played a role in reducing illiteracy from 93 to 70 percent among adults in Mozambique.

The Influence of Evaluations on Educational Policy-making

In spite of skepticism and doubt there is evidence that evaluation research could play an important role for policy- making. This could differ between countries, and the directions are not always as planned by the political leaders. The National Evaluation in Sweden is under debate just now and this debate might lead the whole undertaking into different directions than the policy-makers planned. Why comparative studies have been so popular is that they have been furnishing information about the quality of the students compared to students in other nations. Results from comparative evaluations have a tendency to be more commented upon in the major magazines and newspapers than the national evaluations are. Both in national evaluations and comparative studies educational policy could be studied in the context of the overall social and economic policy but also thanks to the background information collected for each student. In comparative studies the effects of the structure of schooling, particularly the structure of basic schooling, can be studied by comparing student achievement and student motivation in various types of school systems. Curricular problems pertaining to objectives, time, number of years of study, number of periods per week, appropriate age of introducing a subject, and methods of instruction could be studied both in national evaluations and in comparative studies (Husén, 1987). In all countries it is important to consider the socioeconomic structure at large, within which a given national system is operating. Increased resources and/or improved instruction in one setting with poor resources might enhance the quality of outcomes considerably, whereas the effects in an affluent system could be marginal.

It is quite clear that policy-makers in different countries take research results into consideration to a varying degree (Husén & Kogan, 1984). This might have to do with their own education, but also with how well the results are being presented by the researchers. It might also be easier to understand findings from evaluations in a small country compared to a larger. Different countries might also have different traditions in utilizing social science research for policy-making purposes. Sweden is a country that has a long tradition in utilizing educational research, and most of the comprehensive educational reforms have been evaluated in small scale before the introduction in the whole country. Social science research has also been used in most State commissions preparing for the reforms. In evaluating the reforms the longitudinal studies have played an important role.

Qualitative studies have been more and more popular in the last decade. They may have more impact at the grass-root level. Some of their results are easier to understand and there is a tendency that they could influence what goes on in the classroom to a greater extent.

In the 1990s there will certainly be important changes in education in most countries. In all countries evaluation is needed for students, teachers, administrators at local and central level, and policy makers to understand what results such changes will lead to.

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EVALUATION AND RESEARCH CAPACITY-BUILDING IN EDUCATION

MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE 1990s

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EVALUATION AND RESEARCH CAPACITY-BUILDING IN EDUCATION MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE 1990s

Introduction

1. The process of institutionalizing educational evaluation and research has varied markedly across different regions of the world. In this paper an attempt is made to assess the rather short history of educational evaluation and research in the developing world with a view to present and discuss different strategies and modalities for meeting the challenges and needs of the 1990s. In some of the developing countries, the field of educational evaluation and research is still looked upon as a luxury while in others, it is treated in many respects as a novelty. It is argued that the slow progress in these countries is partly due to the under-utilization of existing evaluation and research experience. It can be said however, that in general terms, like the industrial revolution and the major technical and structural changes that followed after, evaluation and research were initiated and flourished in Europe and North America; only later appearing in the largely unindustrialized South. And like the industrialization process, they have been conducted steered South but largely managed by the North.

2. Although the gap between the developing and the developed countries keeps on widening, still much remains to be done in the field of educational evaluation and research from the standpoints of theory, methodology, and practice. The recent development in the field is marked by a high degree of cross-fertilization from other social science disciplines such

as psychology, sociology, political sciences, anthropology, and from statistical and computer sciences. The cross-fertilization [illegible] of the profession and discipline has brought about an impressive improvement in the quality, designs, and techniques of educational evaluation and research. This development is accompanied by continuous efforts to promote progressive social change with successfully more efficient and effective programming in education resulting into improved technology, highly trained personnel, a supportive infrastructure and a conducive political environment for evaluation and research in a great number of countries. Several works are recently published to map this development (see for example, De Landsheere, 1982; Keeves, 1988; Husén, 1989; and Chinapah and Miron, 1990) but they also reflect the poor capacities for, and the paucity of, indigenous research and evaluation in the developing countries.

3. In the first section of this paper, an overview of the barriers, limitations, and implications for building educational capacities in evaluation and research of _a permanent structure_ in the developing countries, and in particular in Africa, will be given. This is then followed by a section on some strategies for collaborative educational evaluation and research and the importance of networking. Finally, in the third section, various modalities for enhancing regional and national capacity-building for educational evaluation and research will be examined.

4. The success and appropriate utilization of educational evaluation and research works are often mirrored through the national *"climate"* for such type of works. In referring to *"climate"* we consider here the political, economic, and socio-cultural backdrop as well as the institutional setting in which these works are pursued. The condition and status of educational evaluation and research in the developing countries are in important respects different from the industrialized North just as the conditions and milieu of their educational programmes and projects are different. While the borrowed and adapted structures and techniques have proven helpful and rewarding, they are often off target and not as adequate as their conditions might require (Chinapah and Miron, 1990). North-South collaboration is vital and will continue to be so but much is required in the South to initiate, promote and maintain good quality evaluation and research as expressed by Cohen and Reiff (1984:16).

> *Institutionalized research in the Third World is: new, growing rapidly, under financed, uncoordinated, fragile, still dominated by a tradition of psychopedagogical research, unable to train locally a next generation, subject to international funds, dependent on First World concepts and methodologies, and living on its own potential. With few exceptions, growth is tied to foreign assistance and often to key individuals within a country or a region. Direct, informal contacts are still more important for diffusing research than is the written word. Everywhere, potential consumers of educational research remain a small and select group; a research mentality is not spread within nations.*

5. Although there is a general consensus that educational evaluation and research both conceptually and methodologically are international, still it is of utmost importance to recognize

that the paradigms and methods are not independent of the political and socio-cultural values prevailing in a particular society (Husén, 1981).

6. In recent years, several donor agencies have shown some concern in the development of national capacities for educational evaluation and research in the developing countries. The two most prominent ones in this field are the Canadian International Development Research Centre (IDRC) and the Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries (SAREC). Both agencies have commissioned a series of studies on the environments of evaluation and research in these countries. Of special interest here are the various studies commissioned by IDRC to examine the environments of educational research (e.g. Shaeffer and Nkinyangi, 1983; Chinapah, 1986; Namuddu, 1986; and Gopinathan and Nielsen, 1988). One of the major outcomes of the first study mentioned (Shaeffer and Nkinyangi, 1983) was to develop a framework for the analysis of national capacity for educational research in developing countries.

7. Shaeffer and Nkinyangi (1983:11) argued that *"a society's capacity for educational research is: the extent to which it is able effectively to use relevant inputs; generate, conduct, evaluate, and use educational research; and then maintain and periodically renew these abilities"*. The notion of building, maintaining, and renewing educational research capacity in developing countries is rather new and, by and large, very remote from traditional North-South collaborative educational research. This is confirmed by the two *"State-of-Art-Reviews"* in Africa carried out by Chinapah (1986) and Namuddu (1986). Besides,

political and economic constraints, national capacity for educational evaluation and research in these countries is blocked by institutional and departmental barriers, poor training facilities, low quality infrastructures and low profile and status of educational researchers. Gopinathan and Nielsen (1988:25) observed a somewhat similar trend in the Southeast Asian context. In addition to a predominance of Western norms of inquiry, *"(R)esearchers complain of inadequate funds, strong government control, few intangible rewards, and little collegial cooperation. Consequently, it is rare to find researchers with long term commitment to and identification with a particular line of scientific inquiry"*.

8. Educational research is still an unrecognized and a non-organized scientific pursuit often characterized by piece-meal approaches and efforts in the developing countries. It is found that Africa is of no doubt the least equipped region in research capacity, particularly with regard to institutional resources. Within Africa itself, a centre-periphery phenomenon has emerged over the years where institutions or centres of excellence for educational and social science research got concentrated in few countries (e.g. Nigeria and Kenya). The majority of African research institutions do not command considerable resources in terms of competent research staff, physical and technical infrastructure, and finance to create a permanent and enduring research environment (Chinapah, 1988). A significant number of them are just curriculum development centres (CDCs) conducting rather limited research. Husén (1981:85) made three generalizations as far as research

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capabilities in education on the African scene are concerned:

(1) There are three to four institutions that would possess the institutional competence to conduct research that where sophisticated design, large data sets, complex data processing, and advanced statistical analysis are involved.

(2) Indigenous competence, even in the institutions of good capabilities, is conspicuously lacking. A high proportion of professionals with training in educational research are expatriates. The indigenous researchers have almost throughout been trained at graduate schools of education either in the United States or in Europe.

(3) Stability in terms of availability of staff and financial support is often lacking, either due to frequent re-organization and/or to political upheavals.

9. Very few institutions, departments or bureaus of educational research in the developing countries would meet the criteria of *"centres of excellence"* as proposed by Husén (1981: 24-25), namely:

(1) Major thrust of research programmes as reflected in institutional publications.
(2) Academic level as evidences by degrees of senior researchers, university affiliation and graduate programmes.
(3) Relations with the scholarly community in the field (e.g. citations in the International Social Sciences Citation Index).
(4) Methodological sophistication.
(5) Size of research budget.
(6) Relations with national and international agencies working in development education.

10. The widening gap in the capacities for educational evaluation and research between regions of the world may call for an alternative approach to North-South pattern of collaborative evaluation and research ventures. A number of scholars in the North and in the South as well, has repeatedly emphasized that

North-South collaborative ventures often reinforced *"academic imperialism", "dependence" and "underdevelopment"* in the process of building national capacities in developing countries. Salmi (1984:9) provided three approaches to describe the nature of such collaborative ventures, namely, (1) the turn-key approach; (2) the laboratory approach; and (3) the ivory-tower approach. In the turn-key approach, a group of foreign experts is invited by national authorities in the developing countries. This group usually carries out evaluation and research *"on its own, in total isolation, without interaction with the local researchers and specialists".* Such a group is not there to build national and local competencies but rather to ensure a situation of dependency upon foreign expertise for future evaluation and research ventures of similar nature. Paradoxically, heavy dependence on foreign expertise tends to persist and policy-makers and government officials in the South continue to suffer from an inferiority complex *vis-à-vis* these foreign experts. In the laboratory approach, evaluators and researchers from the North, find countries in the South *"interesting, exotic, unusual, and present therefore a challenge to the many researchers from industrialized countries who elect to study some aspects of the mysterious world of underdevelopment".* Evaluators and researchers in the South hardly have access to such evaluation and research works which are generally located in northern institutions. Finally, in the ivory tower approach, Salmi argued that the entire evaluation and research work is planned, organized, and executed by the North. It is then duplicated for countries in the South regardless of their specific conditions and major economic and social differences. Poor performance of these countries in such an *"Olympic Game"* is often said to be due to poor quality of the data than to the initial evaluation and research model, design, instruments, and analysis. Following Salmi's arguments and many others, there is more than ever a pressing need for educational evaluators and researchers in the South to reconsider the whole framework for collaborative ventures.

11. The problems for building a permanent structure for educational evaluation and research in the developing countries are manifold and complex. It will be too presumptuous in this paper to take account of all of them. However, some major ones can be mentioned here with specific reference to educational research.

12. Educational research in the developing countries will remain for long an activity heavily subsidized through external funding. Without genuine efforts from both ends -- from national authorities and prospective beneficiaries and from the donor agencies themselves-- the tendency for agency-determined research agendas and paradigms may persist. This would leave little scope for participatory and action-research (Stromquist, 1984). Joint efforts are required to promote indigenous research capacity in these countries. As it is often argued, a greater diversity of research paradigms, cognitive styles, and research approaches would be more profitable to research capacity-building in these countries (King, 1984, Goldschmith, 1984).

13. One of the major difficulties in the implementation of educational policies and reforms is the treatment and management

of conflicting goals and conflicting interest groups. Researchers in these countries are often confronted with a political climate which is not conducive to educational research. Many national educational systems in the developing countries suffer from a lack of independent and value-free constructive criticisms of their performances, weaknesses and failures. Burnham (1973) and Chinapah and Fägerlind (1986) argued that the quality of research is determined by the political and institutional climate of each and every country. Conflicts, openness, informed criticisms, pluralism and disagreement are all vital elements making such a climate.

14. However, in many countries, researchers are often forced into different routes. Their research would need to be in harmony with the existing political criteria, and their personal status often bears heavily on official authorizations of their research. A conducive research dialogue is not always possible due to bureaucratic procedures and financial constraints (Salmi, 1984, Hoppers, 1984). The process of building a permanent structure for educational evaluation cum research in the developing countries has to reconsider those problems and difficulties mentioned above. As we can observe, these countries' progress in this field is not only determined by economic and technical constraints but also by political and social ones. On the international scene, we can also observe the underrepresentation of the works of national researchers in established journals. Instead, the transnationalization of knowledge about the South in general is pursued in northern journals which often are more widely disseminated in these

countries than are their domestic ones (Stromquist, 1984).

15. Regional and national capacity-building in educational evaluation and research have to confront all these barriers, and hopefully so, the recent development in the field points at such a direction.

Strategies for Collaborative Educational Research and Evaluation and the Importance of Networking

16. South-South cooperation in educational evaluation and research is a rather recent phenomenon. In Africa for example, many regional and sub-regional networks and projects have been established in the 1980s to develop the capacities for educational evaluation and research. We shall focus on the recent experience in the African region and sub-regions to examine the different strategies for collaborative educational evaluation and research. With the increasing political commitment and cooperation among African states and their research institutions, a great deal can be achieved in the promotion of indigenous capacities for educational evaluation and research in the region. At the political level, the Second Conference of Ministers responsible for the application of science and technology to development in Africa -- CASTAFRICA II (Arusha, July, 1987) provided some new directions and approaches in inter-African and regional cooperation in research (see, Science, technology and endogenous development in Africa - CASTAFRICA II, Unesco, 1987).

17. With the creation of some regional and sub-regional networks, educational evaluation and research in Africa are

gaining momentum, and not least, from the standpoint of the relationship between research and policy-making and the new possibilities for regional and indigenous evaluation and research capacity-building. Regional organizations or associations are in this respect playing an instrumental role. A few of them can be mentioned here: (1) *the African Academy of Sciences and its Network of African Scientific Organizations* (NASO); (2) *the Educational Research Network in Eastern and Southern Africa* (ERNESA); (3) *the "Association des Institutions de Recherches et de Development dans L'Ocean Indien"* (ARDOI); (4) *the "Association des Universitès Partiellement ou Entiérement de Langue Francaise"* (AUPELF); (5) *the African Network on Science and Technology Information* (ANSTI); (6) *the Network of Educational Innovation for Development in Africa* (NEIDA); (7) *the network for the Development of textbooks and Teaching Materials for Training Colleges in SADDC countries*; (8) *the Council for the Development of Economic and Social Research in Africa* (CODESERIA); and (9) *the network for Education with Production (EWP) in Eastern and Southern Africa*. To take stock of the importance of networking in building educational evaluation and research capacities in the developing countries, a brief account of EWP will be given here. For details about the works and activities of EWP and associated networks, reference can be made to the various volumes of *The Journal of the Foundation for Education with Production*.

18. The lessons learned from EWP networking in Eastern and Southern Africa confirm the old adage *"unity is strength"*. The EWP's experience also indicates that the formation of networks

between and among people consolidates joint research ventures and brings about a wider awareness and greater tolerance among researchers and scholars in the South. Although the EWP network is restricted to very few people, mostly Academics in Universities, still as an instrument for evaluation and research capacity-building, it serves as any other evaluation and research networks, the following purposes:

(i) It is a means of encouraging joint evaluation and research among indigenous researchers in order for them to initiate and perhaps develop alternative evaluation and research methodologies that are more relevant to local needs.

(ii) It is a means of providing opportunity to bridge the gap between theory and practice as well as creating a link between academics, policy-makers, practitioners and administrators.

(iii) As a trans-institutional and cross-geographical phenomenon, networking can play a strategic multipurpose-role. Beginning as a meeting point for common objectives, networking helps create a wider awareness and finally becomes a tool for mobilization and change.

(iv) While not intended to change the decision-making structure, an effective networking operating through open communication on new principles, has the potential of making members more responsive to current problems and the way to resolve them.

19. In the field of building institutional training and research capacities in developing countries, the achievements and/or shortcomings need to be systematically documented and disseminated in order to serve as feed-backs for further such ventures. The experience from the *Eastern and Southern African Universities Research Project* (ESAURP) may serve partly this purpose. The ESAURP regional project covers 18 participating universities spanning over 14 countries in Eastern and Southern

Africa. The analysis from the different surveys on educational research and training capacities in the ESAURP project shows for example, that the general attitude to capacity building is gradually improving in many countries in the region with an increasing awareness of the dangers of over-dependency on the neo-colonial institutions. To meet the future needs and challenges, the following major problems in capacity-building were revealed:

(a) traditional attitudes to the reliability of common sense and the mesmerizing visions of leaders persist in subjugating the real value of scientific investigation;

(b) there are ever-present issues relating to lack of resources: human resources as a determinant of competence in research work remains a major problem in the region; material resources ranging from writing, printing and publication facilities; and financial resources that seem to override all other considerations;

(c) the obvious bias in favor of science-oriented subjects and mechanization over education does seem to reflect a conscious effort by governments in the region to steer research in a particular direction. The merits and demerits of such efforts are open to further discussion; and

(d) there is a danger of duplication in research and evaluation across the region.

20. Some of the findings from the ESAURP project show that interdisciplinary research works on topical areas could greatly enhance research and evaluation outputs and probable cut on administrative costs of conducting surveys. Wright (1988) presented a strong case for *collaborative action research in education* (CARE) and fervently argued that in the case of developing countries, this is a rather innovative research

paradigm with the participation of teachers-researchers. Using the Sierra Leone's experience in engendering indigenous research through the CARE paradigm, he made the following observations.

> *At a more fundamental level however, the concepts and the role they (teachers) play in the research process are crucial in two respects for a proper understanding of the CARE paradigm. Firstly the concepts of collaboration and action-oriented influence and underlie most decisions on what to do next, and how to proceed with the research. They therefore act as a driving force in the evolution of an innovative paradigm. Secondly as the research process unfolds, researchers become increasingly aware that continued adherence to collaboration and action-orientation profoundly influences crucial research issues such as methodology, epistemological foundations, and ethical considerations. As this awareness develops it becomes possible to switch backwards and forwards, from a pragmatic and concrete exercise of educational research, to a more reflective and theoretical process concerned with capturing the essentials of innovative research paradigm as it evolves.*
>
> *Wright (1988:284)*

21. In his discussion of models for collaboration toward integrated research, Yoder (1989:49) argues that collaborative research offers the possibility of increasing the *"critical mass"* of a study. It does so by linking its own *"mass"* to that of other studies and or by linking researchers to each other leading to greater advantages in cross-fertilization of ideas at both the design and interpretation stages. Of course, the ambiguity accorded to the very concept of research and evaluation also holds out to considerable possibility of duplication which ultimately means a waste and probably misuse of already scarce resources. Against this backdrop are other issues relating to the future of capacity-building in research and evaluation, the future of regional co-operation, and the future and status of the teacher-researcher. Still other issues, for example, the real chances for research results to reach actual implementation, the question of when research will be most economically utilized as

it is the case of dissertations are important future regional challenges for capacity-building in educational evaluation and research.

22. Again, before advocating strategies for South-South collaborative educational evaluation and research ventures, important considerations are to be made. For example, more attention and use need to be made of the already existing evaluation and research experience. In considering concrete practical experiences one can come to understand better, not only the lacunae in educational research in these countries, but also the difficult conditions under which it has to operate. From such experiences, the importance of capacity-building in educational research becomes ever more apparent. While it is appropriate and revealing to consider the center-periphery relationship in educational research, there is also need to re-assess the overall interdependence between the North and the South in this field. As argued in the previous section, some aspects of contemporary educational evaluation and research designs, methods and instruments are relevant to developing countries, but in the course of their implementation, other more important issues need to be considered. Educational evaluation and research should be conceived as part and parcel of a wider goal of promoting endogenous development at large. Promoting the build-up of national capacity for educational evaluation and research is vital for two reasons: (i) familiarity with the particular social and cultural reality of a country is an undisputable practical advantage; and (ii) trained individuals not only in data collection, but those whose familiarity with the

cultural, linguistic and social environment facilitates a proper interpretation of the data (Husén, 1981).

23. Shaeffer and Nkinyangi (1983) advocate flexibility in training as one approach for the developing nations to satisfy better their own educational evaluation and research needs. This means not only increasing the number of evaluators and researchers, but also seeing to it that there is a greater mix of their skills. They also recommend a greater flexibility and imagination in the climate for evaluation and research. The problem of regional capacity-building is often inherent in the notion that quality programming can only be available in the industrialized North. The tendency to focus on the development of national capacity for educational evaluation and research for people in the developing countries deserves considerable attention.

24. South-South collaboration in educational evaluation and research is still at an infancy stage. For example, joint evaluation and research ventures are seldom carried out, partly because of the shortage of resources and partly because of the poor climate to generate, conduct and perform joint evaluation ventures. Developing regional training capacity can also be thwarted by financial arrangements from donor agencies, foreign governments and universities for training at the universities in the developed countries. However, the indigenous and regional training programmes initiated have so far received the prompt support and encouragement from the major donor agencies who see this as more cost-efficient in the short-run and more effective in the long-run. For example, in his overview of the World Bank

educational research activities, Psacharopoulos (1983:14) strongly emphasized the need for a new direction at the Bank to shift the locus of its research from Washington D.C. and other capitals in the industrialized north to local centres. Such a strategy would enhance greater participation of local researchers in project design, survey techniques, and analysis of national educational policy issues. Regional and national programmes for training of researchers are cases in point here. At both regional and national levels, such programmes should be designed to bring about the so-called multiplier effects in the area of capacity-building in educational evaluation and research.

25. The urgent needs and prospects for South-South cooperation in educational evaluation and research are revealed through some of the surveys carried out in the region. In his survey of educational research and training in the Indian Ocean States of Eastern and Southern Africa (Mauritius, Madagascar, and Seychelles), Chinapah (1986:30-32) identified a series of joint ventures to promote South-South cooperation. Many of these are relevant to the whole region. For example, there are many research problems common to most of the countries in the region where joint teams could be created to develop relevant research designs, methodologies and instruments. Regional training, short-intensive courses, seminars and workshops in research methodology could be organized with follow-ups at national levels. In an another survey of the status of educational research training programmes in six countries of Eastern and Southern Africa, namely, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe, Namuddu (1986:27) argued that under certain

conditions, great possibilities are available to initiate, promote and maintain regional capacity for educational research in Africa.

> *Generally, there is no shortage of personnel and expertise within the region that can implement these (research and training) programmes. What is required first is proper planning, organization and individual, departmental and institutional commitment that transcends the current stifling political maneuvers that reduce training courses to facades of learning. Perhaps another point the regional teachers and researchers may consider is the assignment of other regional expertise in research methodology to undertake brief assignments as teachers at the training centre. Many university departments already have a mechanism for which researchers can be regarded as Research Associates, or Visiting Professors. Other short-term arrangements can be worked out to meet specific regional needs.*

Modalities for Capacity-Building

26. If there is a gross imbalance and an unequal distribution of educational evaluation and research competencies in the developing countries' regions, it can be partly explained by the unavailability of good research training institutions and partly, by the common practice of purchasing and pursuing higher education in Western industrialized countries. For the majority of evaluators and researchers in these regions, their graduate training in social science research, and in particular educational research, has exclusively been taken overseas. Some modalities for enhancing educational research capacity building in the developing countries are examined here.

27. Joint ventures need to be undertaken to fill the existing gaps of applicable information, and the many common themes prevalent in the context of educational evaluation and research. Issues that could be addressed might include linguistic and language problems, equality of educational opportunity,

curriculum relevance and innovation, cost-effectiveness, education and employment, and educational reforms. Efforts to create documentation centers for indigenous research and evaluation experience would also prove constructive. While education in most of the developing countries continues to undergo extensive growth and reform, evaluation and research dealing with the reform process, the assessment of pilot programmes or innovations, and/or the comparison of new and existing educational schemes remains most urgent and useful.

28. It is important to examine funding patterns for evaluation and research works. Here the problem is not a purely economic one, but is also a result of the presence of many funding agencies (bilateral and multilateral) with various aims and objectives. The funding of educational evaluation and research has to be thoroughly considered in order to avoid problems of wastage of scarce resources, duplication of evaluation and research works, creation of unnecessary infrastructures, and the design of inappropriate evaluation and research programmes and projects that deepen the dependence upon the North, while not contributing to the general competence and capacity in the particular countries where such works are to be pursued and improved.

29. Educational evaluation and research play only a small part in the advancement of education and the people it affects, just as it is a small factor in the larger social, economic and political contexts. There are many directions and paths that the developing countries might take in their quest for more effective and appropriate means of evaluation and planning. Some of these

have established *"centres of excellence"* for promoting regional capacity-building in educational evaluation and research. To reduce the heavy dependence for capacity-building in educational research upon universities and tertiary institutions in North America and Europe, these centers could be supported for regional capacity-building programmes. Such a modality could be used for graduate-research training or for recruitment of educational evaluators and researchers amongst the research institutions in these countries. Research and training gaps in the different regions can be decreased by regional courses in educational and other related sciences at certificate, diploma, or degree levels. In other words, the regional infrastructures need to be utilized in the promotion of staff development programmes and/or educational evaluation and research capacity-building for the advancement of potential knowledge, skills and competence that can be shared by individuals, departments, and institutions in these countries. Possibilities for such activities are many and include, for example, short-term courses or workshops in educational evaluation and research methodology.

30. A permanent structure for organizing regular regional short-term intensive training courses and workshops can enrich the educational evaluation and research capacities of these countries and can serve as a platform for the identification of common educational research problems and issues, and the setting up of joint educational evaluation and research ventures. The regional contexts of these countries offer a wide range of possibilities to study common educational research themes. In the area of information, documentation, and dissemination of

educational evaluation and research results, similar possibilities and gaps exist; regional cooperation can be highly beneficial and useful in the process of reinforcing the existing capacity. In a similar vein, regional educational evaluation and research works are often not well disseminated in journals or newsletters to highlight the present cooperation and experience, as well as to point out further needs, gaps, and constraints in the field. Here, for instance, researchers should take seriously the appeal from some regional and sub-regional research communities gathering information on profile of researchers and their research projects. For example, most recently the African Academy of Sciences has called upon academicians and researchers in the region to provide such information in view of the publication of a complete profiles of African Scientists and Research Institutions (see Whydah, 1988, Vol 1 no.4).

31. While in some regions institutions and networks have initiated or are planning to initiate regional training programmes, they are still largely under-utilized (Chinapah, 1988). In view of the acute shortage of, and increasing need for, regional and sub-regional evaluation and research training programmes, the following recommendations are made:

1) The promotion of regional and sub-regional research training programmes at certificate, diploma and degree levels in education and educational-related sciences under the joint supervision of professionals with adequate training to build- up scholarly leadership in the regions and sub-regions.

2) The development of short courses, seminars, and workshops in educational evaluation and research methodology (research designs, instruments constructions, sampling procedures, data collection and data analysis).

3) The maintenance of a permanent infrastructure for exchange of evaluation and research training personnel (teachers and researchers) amongst the regional and sub-regional institutions.

4) The provision of facilities for pre-training and in-service training of teacher-trainers in educational evaluation and research in the different regions and sub-regions.

32. At the national level, capacity-building in educational evaluation and research requires an improvement of the existing infrastructures. This should include the following: (a) staff development programmes for educational evaluators and researchers as well as their support personnel; (b) creation and/or improvement of documentation, publication and storage facilities; and (c) assistance to information and dissemination of evaluation and research works. While the problems and suggestions pointed out here are generally recognized, it is appropriate to say that with fair and reasonable fiscal and moral support to South-South cooperation in educational evaluation and research, much can be achieved to initiate, promote, and maintain regional, sub-regional and national capacities for educational evaluation and research.

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EVALUACION DE LA CALIDAD DE LA EDUCACION EN AMERICA LATINA

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EVALUACION DE LA CALIDAD DE LA EDUCACION EN AMERICA LATINA

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I.INTRODUCCION

La preocupación por la calidad de la educación, tanto por parte de los gobiernos y ministerios, como por parte de docentes, directivos y la comunidad, surge cada vez con más fuerza. Esto se da en parte porque, si bien es cierto que en Latinoamérica la cobertura que ha alcanzado el sistema educativo en la mayoría de los países es considerada como satisfactoria, es también ampliamente aceptado el hecho de que la escuela está colocada frente a desafíos nuevos. La escolarización no ha resultado en el crecimiento económico que en algún momento se esperó. Se cuestiona si ella entrega habilidades para desempeñarse eficientemente en el medio social, cultural y económico.

El tratamiento de este tema, refiere tanto a dimensiones globales del desarrollo de sus poblaciones como a aquellas más ligadas a la calidad de vida de las personas y de las familias. Respecto a esto último, las variaciones en niveles de calidad se ligan directamente al desarrollo de competencias para el logro de mejores niveles de bienestar personal y colectivo. En cuanto al aspecto más global, la discusión sobre calidad de la educación de los niños remite a problemas muy de fondo sobre las posibilidades futuras de que los países de la Región queden mejor ubicadas respecto a los beneficios del impactante progreso técnológico, que hoy básicamente se genera y se aprovecha en el mundo desarrollado. Por cierto, también en este plano queda inscrito el problema estructural de las crecientes manifestaciones de

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[1] El presente documento se elaboró en base a la información producida en el proyecto "Sistemas de Medición de la calidad de la educación básica: Una propuesta." (en prensa UNESCO/OREALC)El equipo de investigación estuvo integrado por Johanna Filp, Marcela Latorre, Erika Snatibañez, Alfredo Rojas, Viola Espínola, Leonor Cariola, Gustavo Cuadra, Luis Zúñiga y Juan Eduardo García-Huidobro.

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inequidad y discriminación frente a tales beneficios, expresiones que pueden observarse operando continuamente en contra de los sectores rurales, indígenas, las áreas de pobreza urbana y, como es bien sabido, también conspirando contra las posibilidades de desarrollo y participación de la mujer de sectores populares.

Entre los grupos más afectados por el problema de la calidad educativa se encuentra la población que vive en condiciones de pobreza. Las dificultades que enfrentan los niños de sectores populares en el manejo de las distinciones referidas al uso del lenguaje, al mundo físico, a la comprensión de su entorno social, viene preocupando a la investigación educativa desde hace ya varios años. Los antecedentes, del sistema escolar chileno, contenidos en el cuadro 1, resultan ilustrativos a este respecto. Los datos - que se refieren solamente a la dimensión de logro de objetivos curriculares - muestran cómo la desigualdad social (expresada en la clasificación por tramos de ingresos) covaría con un patrón de desigualdad en el logro escolar en relación con áreas de conocimientos abordadas en la escuela.

El nivel de logros alcanzados por los niños de familias pobres en su conjunto, representa cerca de la mitad del logro esperado frente a los objetivos que se consideran en las pruebas. Para las áreas de lenguaje, ciencias físicas y naturales, historia y conocimiento del medio geográfico, se mantienen patrones muy similares de discriminación.

Cuadro 1. Niveles de logro en areas fundamentales del trabajo escolar (% de logro en la Prueba Nacional).

Tipo de establecimiento. (asociados a nivel de ingreso de las familias).	Matemáticas	Español	Ciencias	Historia y Geografía.
Aprox.Segundo quintil (tercer y cuarto 10 % más pobre de la población)	58.4	64.9	62.2	67.8
Aprox.Decil 2 (segundo 10% más pobre)	51.9	57.8	54.9	61.7
Aprox.Decil 1 (10 % más pobre de la población)	47.9	53.5	50.5	58.6

Fuente : A partir de datos del PER 1984.Ministerio de Educación.

En buenas cuentas, los niños de familias pobres, asisten a la escuela pero ese tiempo de escolarización no se llega a expresar en un manejo de los contenidos que se supone la escuela debe transferir. Si persistiera este patrón de exclusión respecto al conocimiento, se podría mirar con pesimismo sus futuras posibilidades de ganar posiciones en la distribución del bienestar,de tomar parte en el progreso tecnológico y en los procesos de toma de decisión pública. Estamos frente a un componente de la desigualdad social cuyo potencial de exclusión llega a ser no sólo muy elevado sino que dificilmente remontable para quienes quedaron inicialmente marginados.

Los niños de los sectores pobres que quedan afectados por un proceso educativo de mala calidad enfrentan una modalidad primaria de desigualdad social, que por estar ligada al equipamiento de las personas (y por lo tanto a la posibilidad de generar acciones efectivas en los dominios ligados a la calidad de la vida) se comporta como una desigualdad generadora de mayor desigualdad.[3]

En resumen, el desafío que se presenta a los gobiernos en estos momentos es el de mejorar la calidad de la educación, y el una estrategia para avanzar en esta línea consiste en generar sistemas de información sobre la calidad educativa, que entregue antecedentes relevantes que permitan objetivizar la actual situación del sistema educacional, vale decir, un sistema de evaluación de calidad de la educación.

Existen ya desarrollos importantes sobre el tema en algunos países del continente. Ellas aportan fundamentos importantes, sobre los que se puede construir. Al mismo tiempo, la aplicación de estos sistemas ha mostrado que no basta con recoger la información, sino que la evaluación debe formar parte de un proceso más amplio, cuyo fin último es mejorar la calidad de la educación. Dentro de esta perspectiva surgen preguntas importantes que deben ser resueltas: ¿Qué se entiende por calidad de la educación? ¿Qué indicadores se definirán? ¿Cómo evaluar? ¿Qué sentido tiene la evaluación? ¿Cómo evitar las resistencias frente a las evaluaciones, especialmente por parte de los docentes? ¿Cómo poner la información al servicio del mejoramiento de la calidad?

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[3] Véase también Zúñiga, Luis. La Educación y la política social: el lugar de la educación de los niños en las estrategias de superación de la pobreza. Santiago: CIDE, Documento de Discusión No 9, 1989.

En el presente documento se intenta dar respuesta a estas preguntas. Para ello se presenta un breve análisis de algunas experiencias de evaluación educativa desarrolladas en América Latina, para recoger de ellas los aportes, así como para detectar las áreas que requieren de mayor elaboración o de rededinición. A continuación se trata el problema de la definición del concepto de calidad de educación, señalando que es posible distinguir básicamente tres perspectivas sobre el tema en la literatura sobre el tema. A continuación se enfoca el problema del sentido que puede tener la evaluación para los sitemas educativos y para la planificación educativa, en cuyo contexto se da especial relevancia al concepto de "accountability. La discusión acerca de la definición de criterios de calidad, a la luz de la gran diversidad socio-cultural y de la desigualdad socio-económica se trata en la sección siguiente, y se concluye el documento describiendo un prototipo de instrumentos para evaluar calidad de la educación básica y presentando algunas consideraciones que estimamos que es conveniente tener en cuenta en la definición de un sistema de evaluación de la calidad de la educación básica.

1. La evaluación y medición educativa en América Latina.

Desde mediados la década de los sesentas se realizan acciones evaluativas en numerosos paises de la región. éstas van desde una investigación de cáracter regional realizada en varios paises de América Latina (ECIEL, 1976) hasta diversos modelos de pruebas nacionales destinadas a acreditar niveles académicos (caso del Bachillerato en Costa Rica), o destinados a medir logros en determinados niveles de la enseñanza, como el SIMCE en Chile aplicado en 1989; pasando por una gran variedad de evaluaciones de programas de innovación o piloto, como por ejemplo la evaluación del PRONEI (Programa No escolarizado de Educación Inicial, Perú 1984), o la de los Cursos Comunitarios en México en 1978, etc .

En el cuadro No. 2 se resumen los tipos de mediciones más comunes en el continente:

Cuadro No. 2.

Cáracter de la Medición	Objetivos	Ejemplo
Medición muestral, de nivel latinoamericano. (eventual)	Determinar variables que afectan el rendimiento escolar.	Programa ECIEL, realizado en diversos paises de

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		A. Latina
Medición nacional, a todos los alumnos de de un grado escolar (periódica)	Determinar los niveles logro que alcanzan los alumnos según escuela	SIMCE de Chile
Evaluación nacional de todos los alumnos que concluyen un nivel educacional (periódica)	Acreditar ese nivel educacional	Bachillerato Costa Rica
Evaluación nacional de todos los postulantes a la Educación Universitaria (periódica)	Determinar quienes poseen los conocimientos necesarios para ingresar a las Universidades.	Prueba de Aptitud Académica de Chile
Medición muestral de alumnos de varios grados escolares (eventual)	Comparación de logros entre esos grados, según escuelas	Proyectos ERAP I y II México
Evaluación de logro de habilidades desarrolladas por los participantes a escala de un proyecto	Evaluar el impacto del proyecto	Evaluación del PRONEI Perú
Evaluación de subsistema dentro del sistema educativo nacional (permanente)	Evaluación del curriculum de formación docente	Proyecto ICOLPE Colombia
Medición de logros como parte de un proyecto de investigación mayor	Medir hasta qué punto otras variables del estudio afectan rendimiento	Proyecto Influencia del docente en el rendimiento INIDE Perú

Desde la perspectiva de evaluar para mejorar la calidad, surgen dos preguntas importantes frente a estas experiencias:
¿Cómo se conceptualiza la calidad de la educación?
¿Qué efectos produjeron las evaluaciones?

2. Calidad de la educación:definiciones conceptuales.

Respecto a la primera pregunta, llama la atención que en general los trabajos suponen la existencia de consenso respecto al significado y alcances del concepto de calidad, de manera que muy pocos explicitan una definición del término empleado. Bajo el mismo enunciado de "calidad de la educación" se incluyen diversas maneras de entender calidad y de conccebir lo educativo.

A conclusiones similares se llega en un trabajo relizado recientemente por Espínola [4], en el que se analiza lo que se ha escrito sobre calidad de la educación en América Latina a partir de 1980. Se constata que el problema de la calidad ocupa hoy en día un lugar preponderante y destacado, y las publicaciones que se refieren a la calidad educativa son cada vez más numerosas.[5]

Respecto a los factores que se relacionan con la calidad, se mencionan con igual énfasis dimensiones tan diferentes como la infraestructura de los establecimientos, las características de los docentes, los contenidos curriculares, la unidad nacional, o la admnistración de la acción educativa. Para algunos autores, el problema de la calidad de la educación se resuelve interviniendo sobre el proceso pedagógico, e incrementando los niveles de rendimiento de los alumnos. Para otros en cambio, no es posible

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[4] Espínola, Viola. La calidad de la educación desde la perspectiva latinoamericana: análisis de información 1980-1987. Santiago: CIDE, REDUC, 1988.

[5] Véase, por ejemplo, Martínez Rizo, F. "Calidad y Distribusión de la Educación: Estado del Arte en América Latina." En: Revista Latinoamericana de Educación, 1983, No. 4
Muelle López, L. "La Eficiencia Interna del Sistema Educacional a Nivel de la Enseñanza Básica: Estado del Arte en América Latina." En: La Educación,OEA, 1984, No 94-95.
Schiefelbein, E. "La Investigación sobre la Calidad de la Enseñanza en América Latina." En: La Educación,OEA, 1984, No 96.

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mejorar la calidad del sistema educacional sin considerar los requerimientos de una sociedad en desarrollo.

En relación a los criterios de calidad, subyacentes a los trabajos, la autora identifica tres perspectivas para analizar el problema. Estas perspectivas avanzan desde lo micro a lo macro, dependiendo de cúal sea el foco de interés, si el proceso pedagógico al interior de las escuelas y de las salas de clases, o el impacto de la educación a nivel de la estructura social.

a. Resultados Pedagógicos: De acuerdo a esta perspectiva, la calidad de un sistema se determina en función del grado de cumplimiento de los objetivos que el mismo sistema se ha definido. Interesa aquí medir el rendimiento de los alumnos y alumnas a través de indicadores relevantes, y de determinar las variables que afectan dicho rendimiento. Se pregunta por la eficiencia del sistema en la transmisión educativa, y no se da lugar a la pregunta por el curriculum. A este nivel se supone una adecuación y armonía entre los objetivos de la escuela y las necesidades de la población.[6]

b. Respuestas a Demandas: En esta perspectiva se pregunta por la meta de la educación, y se entiende que éstas deben satisfacer necesidades sociales.[7] Por lo tanto, la calidad aquí se evalúa en función de la respuesta que la educación da a las demandas de la población a la que atiende. Esta perspectiva implica un cuestionamiento del curriculum desde la cultura local, y contempla niveles variables de participación local. Los estudios que sustentan esta posición suponen una diferencia de principios culturales entre la escuela y los sectores que atiende. Aquí se hacen equivalentes términos como calidad y relevancia.

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[6] Véase, por ejemplo, Miranda, E. Sistema de Supervisión Sistemática de la Calidad de la Educación. Publicación Unesco-OREALC, Abril de 1984.
Chadwick, C. Variables e Indicadores de Calidad en Educación: Determinantes de la Calidad de la Educación. CIENES/OEA, Santiago, 1987.

[7] Véase Triana Otálora, C.A. "La Calidad de la Educación en Colombia: Lo que dice la Opinión Pública". En: II Encuentro de Investigadores sobre Calidad de la Educación Media. Bogotá, 1985.
Allard, N., R. "Gestión Educativa para la Calidad de la Educación: Desafíos, Problemas y Areas de Acción." En: Separata de Estudios Sociales,CPU, 1987, No 53.
Nilo, S. "Apuntes parar una Comparación sobre la Calidad de la Educación en América Latina y Estados Unidos." En: La Educación, OEA, 1984, No 96.

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c. Impacto Social: Desde esta perspectiva, es central la relación entre educación y sociedad, y se entiende al sistema educacional como un engranaje más en la estructura social. La calidad se evalúa en términos de los efectos de la educación a nivel del sistema social amplio.[8] Se cuestiona el peso o el impacto de la educación en la estructura social, y se evalúa su capacidad para producir cambios a nivel global.

Aún cuando estas posiciones implican focos diferentes, usan metodologías distintas, y se sustentan en marcos categoriales variados, ellas coinciden en tres aspectos:

- La calidad de los sistemas educativos en América Latina es deficiente.

- Es necesario realizar diagnósticos de los niveles de calidad existentes, es decir, de evaluar la calidad que hay.

- La situación es tan crítica que no es posible quedarse en los esfuerzos de medición de la calidad, sino que hay que producirla.

En base a estos antecedentes se definió un enfoque para abordar la evaluación de la calidad. Se trata de un tratamiento en etapas, en el cual se evalúa la calidad, partiendo desde una perspectiva de resultados pedagógicos, la que constituiría la base para un análisis más fundamentado de la calidad desde el punto de vista de respuestas a demandas, para posiblemente, intentar responder la interrogante del impacto social. Proponemos que la calidad de la educación debe tener en cuenta las tres perspectivas, pero en la práctica necesariamente deberá privilegiarse una de ellas.

El primer paso para evaluar la calidad consiste en determinar la capacidad del sistema para transmitir lo que tiene que transmitir. Luego vienen las preguntas por la relevancia del curriculum, cuyas respuestas requerirán esfuerzos mayores, y finalmente, las preguntas por el impacto social de la educación son materia de decisión que dependen de cada país y de la ideología sustentada por cada gobierno. Por razones prácticas y de realismo elemental, nuestra propuesta parte y se queda en el primer paso, es decir, propone estrategias e instrumentos para medir la eficiencia en la capacidad de transmisión del sistema.

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[8] Véase, Tedesco, J.C. "Calidad de la Enseñanza y Procesos Sociales." En: La Investiación Educacional en Relación con el Proyecto Principal. OREALC, Lima, Perú, Junio de 1982.
Muñoz Izquierdo, C. "Desarrollo de un Modelo para Evaluar la Calidad de la Educación en México." En: Revista Latinoamericana de Estudios Educativos, 1982, Vol. XII.

El punto de partida es el diagnóstico, es la determinación del "estado de situación" del sistema. Este diagnóstico es el que permite implementar estrategias de mejoramiento, las que a su vez también deben ser evaluadas. La propuesta contempla la posibilidad de la evaluación permanente, el seguimiento de los indicadores y variables medidas.

3. Efectos de las evaluaciones y mediciones.

Sin lugar a dudas, el efecto más visible de las mediciones o de las evaluaciones, en particular de aquéllas que tienen un cáracter periódico, es el menos deseado. Son numerosas las críticas que señalan la distorsión que sufren los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje cuando se realizan pruebas o test anuales, pues los establecimientos terminan orientando su acción educativa al adiestramiento de los alumnos para responder los test. Es el caso de la Prueba de Aptitud Académica en Chile, o las evaluaciones del ICFES de Colombia(9). En gran medida, el centro de las críticas radica en el hecho de que, por la escala a que se aplican tales pruebas, la única forma económica de hacerlo es en formato estandarizado.

De hecho, la necesidad de aplicación masiva de esos instrumentos y de la comparabilidad de sus resultados, ha originado la formación de un verdadero sub-campo dentro del campo de la educación, con sus detractores y sus defensores. Los detractores han sido, normalmente, los profesores quienes se sienten evaluados por terceros. Las críticas más elaboradas al uso de test provienen de la Asociación Nacional de Educadores de los EEUU y de la Federación Americana de Maestros de ese mismo pais (NEA Y FTA, respectivamente). En América Latina el estudio colombiano citado revela críticas similares por parte de maestros de ese país. Frente a esas críticas, los expertos contrargumentan que las pruebas estandarizadas no presentan evidencias significativamente diferentes sobre logros a las que presentarían los propios profesores usando otros formatos, y que además, ni alumnos ni maestros las rechazan (10).

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[9] Sobre el caso colombiano ver: La problemática de la evaluación en Colombia. Universidad Pedagógica Nacional, 1987.

[10] Stufflebeam, Daniel; Tomas Kellaghan y Benjamín Alvarez: La evaluación educativa. Evidencias científicas y cuestionamientos políticos. En Educación hoy. Perspectivas latinoamericanas. Año XII. Ns 71-72 Septiembre Diciembre de 1982. pp.13-154

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Con todo, la sóla existencia de la polémica revela la necesidad de revisar las prácticas evaluativas externas a las escuelas. Adicionalmente, cabe señalar que también las evaluaciones de menor alcance, incluso las que se realizan a nivel de proyecto de pequeña escala, han sido blanco de críticas señalándose que las evaluaciones de logro ignoran los procesos, que en algunos proyectos son tanto o más importante que los resultados; asimismo, se indica que la realidad social es bastante más compleja de lo que predican los modelos insumo-producto o costo-beneficio de los cuales derivan las evaluaciones cuantitativas y por último, que tales evaluaciones no àrrojan resultados útiles para el cambio social o cultural. (Richards, 1988)[11].

Todo lo anterior permite afirmar que la evaluación externa no es una práctica absolutamente legitimada en los sistemas educacionales de Latinoamerica. Aunque por otra parte, es cada vez mayor la necesidad de contar con instrumentos que permitan hacer comparaciones para fundar juicios con el fin de corregir y mejorar prácticas educativas. En consecuencia, las evaluaciones y mediciones siguen siendo necesarias; empero, para que tengan una real eficacia y legitimidad, parece indispensable un cambio en sus propias prácticas y sentidos.

4. El sentido de la evaluación educativa.

Existe un conjunto de situaciones que subyacen el mero problema de la evaluación, como es por ejemplo, el impacto que producen los resultados sobre el grueso de la población. Existen fundadas razones, especialmente dentro del cuerpo docente, para dudar sobre las utilidades de este tipo de mediciones, pues las experiencias que este sector tiene es que las primeras medidas para "mejorar resultados" es cuestionar la función docente y su estabilidad laborarl. Es por esto que nos interesa destacar la importancia que tiene asumir desde un comienzo el sentido que pretende darse al proceso de medición. Proponemos que las definiciones que se adopten al respecto deben ser explicitadas, pues ellas influirán en la aceptación que tendrá el proceso por parte de docentes y directores de establecimientos. Además condicionarán el campo de acciones posibles que se pueden diseñar a partir de la información que se genere.

El sentido global de un sistema de seguimiento como el propuesto aquí, corresponde en un cierto sentido con los sistemas de seguimiento de las políticas macroeconómicas (con una finalidad de correcciones periódicas), los sistemas de control de gestión de las firmas o los sistemas de estadísticas vitales en relación con los esfuerzos en el terreno de la salud.

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[11] Howrds Richards: Las Ciencias Sociales al Servicio de la Esperanza. Santiago, CIDE 1988.

En el ámbito de las relaciones sociales y económicas existen numerosos sistemas estables- que insumen recursos escasos y cuyos productos afectan la vida de las personas- que informan sobre el comportamiento de variables de resultados y sobre el comportamiento de variables que de manera reiterada han sido reconocidas como condicionantes de los niveles de logro. Sobre esta base son posibles operaciones vinculadas a la revisión de los marcos de trabajo al interior de los sistemas.

Por lo general, la actividad de los sistemas escolares ha estado al margen de la preocupación por el seguimiento de la calidad. De esta manera el sistema queda liberado de dar cuenta acerca de lo que efectivamente logra o lo que consigue en beneficio de las personas. Más grave aún es el hecho de que la carencia de una función de seguimiento, referida a un cierto número de dimensiones de la calidad, restringe las posibilidades de orientar esfuerzos de perfeccionamiento e inducir cambios en las modalidades de operación o en los marcos conceptuales que orientan la actividad escolar.

En general la preocupación ha radicado en la cobertura. Así , son las tasa de ingreso y retención las que importan. L educación como "tiempo de experiencia educativa" ha constituído el eje del diseño, cuestión que en una perspectiva histórica ha tenido, como consecuencia positiva, la expansión de las coberturas de la escuela. Lamentablemente, ese mismo marco orientador ha limitado las preguntas sobre el "para qué sirve" y "a quienes sirve" la experiencia educativa. Este mismo enfoque ha orientado los esfuerzos de mejoramiento de la educación a la construcción e implementación de establecimientos, por una parte, y a las familias, por otra. Por lo general se ha atribuído la responsabilidad por el fracaso escolar a factores extra-escolares, como por ejemplo al nivel de escolaridad de los padres, a dificultades de los alumnos, etc. Estos, si bien son factores que inciden en el logro de los objetivos educativos, desvían la atención de la responsabilidad que pueda caberle a la escuela, es decir a facotres intra-escolares.En parte esto es conciencia del hecho de que no se dipone de información objetiva acerca de los conocimientos efectivamente adquiridos por los alumnos y por la utilidad que dichos conocimientos les prestan en sus vidas. Frente a estos aspectos la escuela debería responder a la sociedad y a todos aquellos que de una u otra manera invierten en ella.

Un sistema de medición de la calidad, como el que se propone aquí, representa una estrategia para hacer visible el producto del proceso educativo.Entrega las bases para que la escuela pueda hacerse responsable de dicho producto , y permite que se genere lo que en la lengua anglo-sajona se ha denominado "accountability".

Se trata no sólo de medir niveles de calidad, en el sentido de aportar información puntual en algún período de tiempo. No se trata sólo de ofrecer una radiografía acerca de la calidad educativa en un punto del tiempo, sino más bien se trata de un sistem de monitoreo a lo largo del tiempo, que permita ir objetivando las fluctuaciones, cambios, avances, retrocesos de la calidad educativa. Esta información permitirá establecer con el tiempo los mecanismos que estan operando para producir los resultados obtenidos, e incidir así en la producción de calidad.

En concreto, un sistema de monitoreo de los niveles de calidad calidad, permitiría acciones de corrección y perfeccionamiento de los sistemas a través de mecanismos tales como:

- Sensibilizar a profesores a las categorías que deben mantener en mente en la enseñanza impartida a los alumnos. En otras palabras, ofrecer una imagen clara del producto final esperado.(Este tiende a perderse en la mente de las maestras y maestros, cuando se encuentran con las frustraciones y problemas, porque los alumnos no responden a sus expectativas.)

- Proveer a profesores con información acerca del avance o retroceso de los niños, lo cual por una parte cumple la función de mejorar el sentido de la competencia profesional (en el caso de los avances), y por otra entrega pistas para tomar medidas correctivas (en el caso de los problemas).

- Activar la participación y movilización de las comunidades locales en favor de la educación de los niños y colabore en la búsqueda de soluciones y procedimientos para elevar la calidad de la educación.

- Aportar fundamentos para que la competencia sea estimulada a través de incentivos a docentes. Dicho sistema de incentivos puede facilitar el que profesores y profesoras se arriesguen a ensayar nuevas conductas, especialmente si reciben alguna información acerca de la efectividad o no efectividad de sus ensayos.

- Aportar información a los ministerios acerca de la efectividad de diferentes medidas de política educacional implementadas.

Desde el punto de vista administrativo, teniendo presente la tendencia a la descentralización y regionalización de los sistemas educativos, la evaluación de la calidad forma parte importante de la caja de herramientas de planificadores. Se encuentran variadas situaciones en el continente; en lo que respecta a la descentralización, en un extremo se tienen políticas de descentralización total, como es el caso de la privatización de la enseñanza en Chile, mientras que otros paises han avanzado hacia la descentralización y regionalización administrativa (caso México) y en otros más se mantienen los sistemas centralizados (caso Honduras); respecto de la regionalización curricular la situación latinoamericana muestra menor variedad, pues sólo algunos paises han tomado medidas al respecto (programas y libros de texto para ciertas regiones, en México; modificación legal para flexibilizar los curricula, en Chile) mientras que en la mayoría el punto está en discusión.

Es evidente que si se observan diferentes políticas educacionales respecto de la descentralización de los sistemas y de la regionalización, las mediciones de calidad tienen que adecuarse a esas diferencias. Por ejemplo, en Chile fue imperativo establecer un proceso de medición de calidad que cubriera a todas las escuelas puesto que la función de educar fue entregada al mercado y en ese contexto, la transparencia en la entrega de información cumplía dos propósitos fundamentales: de una parte, incentivar a las instituciones escolares a mejorar la calidad de su enseñanza a la luz de los resultados que obtuvieron y de la otra, informar a los padres y apoderados la situación de la escuela, bajo el supuesto que en una economía de mercado, los padres tenderán a elegir las mejores escuelas para sus hijos y, dado que a su vez el financiamiento escolar está atado al número de alumnos matriculados, finalmente las escuelas de mala calidad tenderán a desaparecer.

Por el contrario, en un sistema altamente centralizado no se requieren mediciones escuela por escuela; en ese caso las mediciones de calidad se pueden hacer sólo para aquéllas zonas o grupos sociales altamente vulnerables al fracaso escolar, con el fin de aplicar programas o acciones remediales de modo prioritario en esos grupos; o bien aplicaciones muestrales con una periodicidad amplia (dos a tres años) a fin de monitorear la calidad de todo el sistema.

Entre ambos extremos, los paises en los cuales se están llevando a cabo procesos de descentralización requieren de mediciones de calidad tanto para involucrar a autoridades y comunidades regionales en la acción educativa de la que se están haciendo cargo, como para monitorear -desde el nivel central- a los estados, provincias o regiones evitando se incrementen las diferencias en la calidad de la educación que imparten.

En general, se puede afirmar que las mediciones de calidad serán tanto más necesarias cuanto mayor sea el grado de avance de los procesos de descentralización del sistema y de regionalización de los curricula pues constituirán una de las herramientas claves para supervisar la unidad en medio de la diversidad.

De este análisis se desprende que la medición cumple no sólo el objetivo de monitorear la calidad de los servicios educacionales, sino también elevar los niveles de calidad de los sistemas. Es decir, nos interesa no sólo contribuir a la medición de la calidad sino a producirla.

Se ha comprobado que el tomar conciencia y sensibilizarse respecto a ciertos problemas es un primer paso necesario para el cambio. El sólo hecho de observar, medir y registrar algunos aspectos de lo que los educadores estan haciendo en las escuelas genera una cantidad de reacciones que resultarán probablemente en variaciones de esa práctica. El conocer datos secundarios respecto al rendimiento del sistema, y el saber que la evaluación será repetida, seguramente estimulará un saludable interés por superar los indicadores existentes.

Desde este punto de vista se puede entender que el monitoreo representa en sí ya un mecanismo sencillo de mejoramiento de la calidad, a través de la sensibilización a determinados productos y aspectos del sistema educativo. En este proceso lo central es entonces, no sólo la recuperación de información y su acumulación a nivel central a la espera de ser transformada en políticas o programas educativos, sino su circulación y difusión a nivel de transmisión educativa.

En ese marco, dos son los momentos cruciales para desarrollar conversaciones en las que se vaya creando este nuevo sentido. El primero de ellos es la fase de diseño de la medición; allí la difusión de los objetivos de la misma y la incorporación activa de la comunidad involucrada es crucial. La forma de incorporación de los actores variará según la modalidad que asuma la medición, pero cualesquiera sean éstas, debe quedar en claro que no se pretende medir para inculpar, sino para cambiar.

El segundo momento, es en la fase de entrega de los resultados. Al respecto, particular importancia cobra devolver éstos a los involucrados, y que tal devolución esté inmersa en procesos en los que sea posible abrir una reflexión sobre las acciones remediales que estén a su alcance. De lo que se trata es de que cualquier medición o evaluación se continúe en procesos de cambio, en acción.

5. Criterios de Calidad y Diversidad Socio-Cultural.

Uno de los problemas que deben resoverse en la definición de criterios de calidad y de una base instrumental para evaluarla es si es legítimo utilizar baterías comunes para contextos culturales tan diferentes como los que se observan en la región, y al interior de cada país. En efecto, es un lugar común hablar de América latina como un continente de contrastes, como un territorio en donde conviven la extrema pobreza y la opulencia, lo tradicional y lo moderno, lo europeo y lo indígena. Desde otro punto de vista, en todos los paises son notables las diferencias entre lo rural y lo urbano, entre el campo y la ciudad. Estas diferencias afectan a los procesos educativos y por ende, deben ser consideradas en cualquier evaluación; en especial, en aquéllas que buscan medir logros respecto a objetivos globales, válidos para todas las escuelas de una nación.

Así, la investigación educacional, y algunas evaluaciones a realizadas a escala nacional [12] muestran de modo sistemático que los niños campesinos no indigenas obtienen mayores logros que los indigenas, los urbanos que los rurales, los urbanos ricos que los pobres y, del mismo modo, que las escuelas indigenas son de menor calidad que las rurales incompletas, éstas que las rurales completas las que a su vez son peores que las urbanas pobres y éstas que las urbanas ricas.

Son varias las formas teóricas y/o prácticas posibles para considerar la diversidad sociocultural en evaluaciones de procesos educativos a escala nacional.

La primera de ellas, de cáracter puramente teórico, es considerar que la diversidad de situaciones *explica* las diferencias de logro. Podría decirse que esta forma *sociológica* de observar la diversidad constituye una tradición explicativa largamente desarrollada en América Latina y, referida a las evaluaciones de cáracter nacional deja sin responder una cuestión fundamental: ¿hasta qué punto las desigualdades observables en los logros educacionales de grupos socioculturales diversos son atribuibles a tal diversidad y hasta qué punto son atribuibles a la escuela?

Una forma de soslayar esa cuestión es la de hacer comparaciones de logros entre escuelas de contextos relativamente homogéneos y suponer que las diferencias de logro intragrupos son las atribuibles a los procesos de enseñanza aprendizaje en las escuelas. En términos prácticos, esto significa suspender toda referencia o problematización de la igualdad de la enseñanza a escala nacional, aceptando que tal desigualdad es inevitable y que el sistema educacional y la educación sólo puede mejorar intragrupos, con la esperanza implícita de que en algún momento, de forma aún no precisada, el logro de los alumnos de escuelas pobres o de escuelas rurales alcanzará al de las escuelas urbanas o más ricas.

De las consideraciones anteriores se desprende una segunda forma teórica y práctica de considerar el problema de la diversidad

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[12]. Nos referimos en particular a las experiencias del programa ECIEL para diversos paises de A. L. y del PER y del SIMCE realizadas en Chile.

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sociocultural, forma què podríamos denominar "pragmático relativista" y que ha estado en el trasfondo de la aplicación del SIMCE en 1989 en Chile. La forma concreta de su aplicación fue la siguiente:

1. Se aplicó una batería de pruebas de cáracter nacional en todas las escuelas y a todos los niños de 4to básico del pais.
2. A través de procesos computacionales, los resultados de esas pruebas pueden entregarse en diversos formatos, dependiendo de las necesidades del usuario de la información: funcionarios del Ministerio, investigadores, opinión pública, etc.
3. No se entregaron resultados a nivel de alumno. La unidad mínima de información es el curso (ej: 4to B de la Escuela A-302)
4. A cada profesor se entregaron los resultados de su curso mediante una escala en donde se presenta de una parte la posición relativa de su curso con respecto a otros cursos de escuelas de mismo nivel socioeconómico y de la otra su posición respecto del total nacional.
5. En reuniones de análisis con personal directivo y técnico superior de las escuelas el personal del Ministerio enfatizó la importancia de considerar la posición relativa al mismo nivel socioeconómico como el indicador de calidad de la enseñanza en los establecimientos y cursos respectivos.
6. Los establecimientos tienen la obligación de hacer público el resultado que obtuvieron.

Esta forma de considerar el problema de la diversidad fue posible en Chile no existen objetivos mínimos de la educación básica exigibles a todos los niños del pais; las leyes que establecen planes y programas se refieren sólo a "objetivos fundamentales". Asimismo,como lo hemos señalado más atrás, la transparencia en la entrega de información tiene dos propósitos fundamentales: de una parte, incentivar a las instituciones escolares a mejorar la calidad de su enseñanza a la luz de los resultados obtenidos y de la otra, informar a los padres y apoderados la situación de la escuela, bajo el supuesto que en una economía de mercado, los padres tenderán a elegir las mejores escuelas para sus hijos y, dado que a su vez el financiamiento escolar está atado al número de alumnos matriculados, finalmente las escuelas de mala calidad tenderán a desaparecer.

En otras palabras, la forma "pragamático relativista" fue posible de aplicar en Chile por la peculiar filosofía respecto de objetivos, planes y programas y por la particular forma de financiamiento de la educación. Estas formas de organización ha llevado a algunos críticos a afirmar que en Chile no existe Sistema Nacional de Educación.

Cabe plantear la pregunta de si es posible aplicar criterios pragmático relativistas en Sistemas Educativos con objetivos nacionales mínimos obligatorios y escuelas predominantemente públicas. Creemos que no, puesto que en tales sistemas educacionales el problema de la igualdad en las oportunidades educativas -al margen del origen social de los alumnos- aún está vigente y se supone (o se persigue) que todas las escuelas tienen niveles de calidad semejantes puesto que en la atención a los educandos no estarían operando mecanismos de mercado. En ese caso, se harían necesarias mediciones que evalúen logro -a escala nacional- y al mismo tiempo, consideren la diversidad sociocultural.

La respuesta práctica a ese problema es construir instrumentos de evaluación de cáracter regional, o local, con estructuras comparables a escala nacional. O bien avanzar en la construcción de sistemas nacionales de evaluación en los que se establezcan bancos de pruebas de cáracter local, regional o nacional.

Una forma de mirar tales instrumentos sería considerarlos como *adaptaciones necesarias* para evaluar lo educativo, "controlando" internamente, a través de la factura de las pruebas, la diversidad sociocultural. El problema, en este caso es el de adaptar sin empobrecer. Podemos denominar a esta forma de considerar la diversidad como el enfoque *adaptativo* de la evaluación.

El punto de partida adaptativo consideraría que existe un fondo común, mínimo y obligatorio de conocimientos y habilidades para todos los niños de un pais, que puede ser procesado mediante diferentes formas para aplicarlo en distintos contextos. Hasta donde sabemos, aún no existen en América Latina sistemas semejantes; sin embargo, el continente cuenta ya con la infraestructura técnico-institucional para su desarrollo.

Sin embargo, los supuestos teóricos de ese enfoque son, a nuestro juicio, discutibles. En efecto, ellos parten de la concepción tradicional de educación, según la cual lo que se enseña y se aprende son "objetos de conocimiento" que pueden ser descritos en sus propiedades formales, causales y relacionales para ser aprehendidos e incorporados a una suerte de bagaje intelectual de los educandos. En esa concepción, el alumno sabe cuando es capaz de aplicar tales conocimientos y el proceso de evaluación es medición de ese saber, revelado a partir de aplicaciones ad hoc.

En los últimos dos a tres años, ha surgido una interpretación que cuestiona la concepción tradicional de lo que es el conocer, el conocimiento y el saber y que señala que tal concepción está en la base de la incapacidad innovativa de los egresados de los sistemas educativos y en la pérdida de relevancia de la educación.[13]

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[13] Flores, Fernando. "Educación" Paper. Berkeley 1986.

Según esta concepción, el **saber** es un juicio que un observador (o una comunidad de observadores) hacen sobre el dominio que alguien tiene en un lenguaje determinado. El saber y el conocer ocurren en el lenguaje, son fenómenos linguisticos y por ende el proceso de aprendizaje es la incorporación de un oyente a un lenguaje determinado; por ejemplo, al lenguaje de las matemáticas, o al de la química o la biología. A su vez, el aprendizaje no refiere a la aprehensión de nociones, o de "objetos" sino a la incorporación de ciertas distinciones de esos lenguajes. Por lo tanto, no se aplican conocimientos, se dominan lenguajes.

Esta interpretación del fenómeno de la educación permite afirmar que las dificultades en el aprendizaje de los lenguajes básicos de la sociedad moderna por parte de los sectores indígenas, rurales o urbanos pobres, y por ende los menores logros evaluados, no resulta de la diversidad sociocultural[14]. De igual manera, esta interpretación elimina cualquier atribución de fracaso a problemas de C.I de los alumnos, a deficiencias intelectuales o problemas de autoimagen. En otras palabras, repone la centralidad del hecho pedagógico por encima de interpretaciones sociológicas o psicológicas. En consecuencia, si los niños indígenas, rurales o urbanos pobres muestran un menor dominio en los lenguajes de la modernidad, es porque reciben educación de mala calidad.

Lo anterior permite llegar a una conclusión provisoria: si con las evaluaciones se pretende juzgar el dominio que tienen los alumnos de los lenguajes básicos de la sociedad, expresados en algunos objetivos mínimos, resulta legítimo aplicar instrumentos a escala nacional y sus resultados son comparables en esa misma escala. Empero, ello es así a condición que, antes que nada, los alumnos, todos los alumnos dominen el lenguaje -o más precisamente el juego linguistico- que podríamos llamar "juego de responder test o pruebas objetivas". De lo contrario, lo que se estará midiendo será sencillamente la mayor o menor habilidad en el dominio del responer test.[15]

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[14]. Puesto que a la hipótesis de que los lenguajes de la modernidad son extraños a esas culturas se puede contraponer el aprendizaje exitoso de lenguas extranjeras, práctica corriente en cualquier sociedad.

[15]Otra alternativa, que puede incluirse en las fases de diseño de los instrumentos de medición o en las etapas de adaptación nacional es la de ir corporando preguntas en el formato habitual utilizado por los profesores e incluso construídos por ellos mismos. De hecho, hoy en día, con los desarrollos de la microcomputación y la telemática es posible implmentar sistemas descentralizados de corrección y calificación cuyos resultados se produzcan en tiempos similares a las correcciones y calificaciones centralizadas.

6. Instrumentos para evaluar la calidad de la educación.

En un intento de hacer propuestas concretas, que permitan avanzar en el desarrollo de estrategias para el desarrollo de capacidad institucional para el mejoramiento de la calidad educativa, se diseñó un prototipo de instrumentos para medir calidad de educación que pudiese constituir la base para el diseño de sistemas de medición de la calidad en distintos países de la región.

A continuación se ofrece una breve descripción de los instrumentos que se elaboraron y las razones que sustentan esta opción. Se pretende que este conjunto represente un prototipo , un módulo que presenta un rango amplio de posibilidades y que pueda ser adaptado a las necesidades de cada país, seleccionando un sub-conjunto de los instrumentos, o un sub-conjunto de preguntas dentro de cada instrumento.[16]

El prototipo está conformado por los siguientes instrumentos:
- Cuestionario para Directores
- Cuestionarios para Profesores
- Cuestionario para Apoderados
- Ficha del establecimiento
- Instrumentos para medir logros instruccionales

Nivel	Contenido	Tipo de aplicación
Primero básico (inicios)	Conocimiento conceptos lenguaje escrito	Interna
Primero básico	Lectura	Interna
	Escritura	Interna
	Matemáticas	Interna
Segundo básico	Lectura	Externa
	Escritura	Interna
	Matemáticas	Externa
Cuarto básico	Castellano	Externa
	Matemáticas	Externa

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[16] Actualmente se cuenta con una primera versión de estos instrumentos, después de ser aplicados experimentalmente en tres escuelas, de diferentes niveles socio-económicos en un país andino. Ver "Sistemas de Medición de la calidad de la educación básica: Una propuesta". UNESCO/OREALC, en prensa.

Tal como se ha señalado, este conjunto de instrumentos representa un prototipo que ofrece un espectro amplio de posibilidades para abordar la medición de la calidad.

Como ejemplo, se puede considerar el caso de un país que no haya recogido información sobre la calidad educativa. En esta situación caso puede ser conveniente comenzar con la aplicación de las pruebas de logro para cuarto básico en una muestra representativa de la población de cuarto básico. Si se desea disponer además de información que permita interpretar la información obtenida, se puede complementar con el cuestionario para directores y con la ficha descriptiva del establecimiento escolar. Esto permitirá obtener información sobre algunos factores intra-escolares y luego analizar su relación con los resultados de logro. Dicho analisis puede ofrecer algunas pistas orientadoras para emprender acciones remediales o para orientar la formulación de las políticas educacionales y sociales.

A continuación entregamos una breve y justificación de los instrumentos que se sugiere utilizar para medir calidad educativa. Estos son de dos tipos: a) unos, dirigidos a diferentes miembros de la comunidad escolar, cuyo objetivo es medir indicadores tradicionales de calidad o factores asociados a ella; y b) aquellos que están diseñados para medir la adquisición de conocimientos y logros por parte de los alumnos de distintos niveles.

Instrumentos dirigidos a diferentes miembros de la comunidad escolar:

Directores: La función de dirección es decisiva en los logros académicos del alumnado, sin embargo generalmente este cargo es considerado como exclusivamente administrativo sin que se preste la debida atención a la función educativa del mismo.
Los distintos aspectos considerados en la encuesta obedecen a hipótesis respecto a la relación entre la forma de ejercer el cargo de dirección y los procesos que se dan al interior de la escuela.

La labor del director es decisiva en cuanto al tipo de organización que se da en la escuela, y ésta, a su vez, influye en el clima general, en las actitudes del docente y en sus posibilidades de perfeccionamiento. Asimismo, se consideran las expectativas de los directores respecto a los docentes que laboran en la escuela, reconociendo la capacidad del proceso de interacción en la modificación y cambio de actitudes.

Uno de los rasgos que define tipos de dirección es la existencia o ausencia de una opción clara por determinada tecnología (o metodología?) educativa. Por esto se consulta al director respecto a sus propias prioridades y opciones y en la ingerencia que tiene en estè tipo de decisiones.

El tipo de medidas correctivas que se apliquen al interior del establecimiento dependerán en gran medida de las atribuciones de causalidad que se hagan respecto al bajo rendimiento, fracaso y deserción. Del mismo modo, las expectativas de logro escolar que se tenga respecto al alumnado determinarán las metas y objetivos que los docentes se propongan cumplir; es el techo del aprendizaje posible.

Relacionado a lo anterior, están los juicios y prejuicios que se tengan respecto al medio y a las familias de los alumnos.
Ello influye y explica en la atribución de causalidad del fracaso escolar y, al mismo tiempo, es un criterio para fijar las expectativas que se pueden tener respecto a los alumnos.

Profesores. No parece necesario justificar el peso de los maestros en la eficiencia del proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje. Diversos estudios se han ocupado de establecer las relaciones entre distinto tipo de características de los profesores (personales, de calificación, de las condiciones laborales en que se desempeñan, cognitivas y afectivas), y los resultados de sus alumnos. También se ha prestado especial importancia al manejo instruccional que hacen los profesores al interior de la sala de clase (estrategias, estilo de relación profesor-alumno y de enseñanza).

Para seleccionar las variables a considerar en este instrumento se tuvo en cuenta su forma de aplicación y la finalidad de la medición en general. El manejo instruccional, requiere de observación y por lo tanto fue descartado. En cambio, se puso el énfasis en los aspectos organizacionales del establecimiento y en la calificación de los docentes. Ambos aspectos son posibles de modificar por medidas de políticas aplicables a nivel central o a nivel de establecimientos. Los datos respecto a la organización del establecimiento pueden ser analizados como información en si misma y contrastada con la entregada por la dirección; y también como indicador de satisfacción y de apoyo organizacional a la labor docente. La calificación es vista en relación a la formación, experiencia y perfeccionamiento de los docentes. Dentro de la experiencia se considera la rotación al interior del establecimiento y entre distintos establecimientos, dadas las asociaciones de este hecho con el desarrollo linguístico de los alumnos y con la capacidad de los profesores para interrelacionarse con la comunidad

Otro tipo de variables al que se le otorga importancia dentro de este instrumento es a las atribuciones y expectativas que los docentes tienen respecto a los alumnos y a las familias de éstos. La importancia de estas variables se fundamentó en relación al cuestionario de los directores; pero cabe agregar que ellas son más decisivas en el caso de los maestros, que tienen una relación más estrecha y directa con los alumnos y, por lo tanto, afectan las expectativas y auto-percepción de los alumnos.

Padres/apoderados. Los resultados del proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje están asociado tanto a variables del contexto escolar como del contexto social y familiar del cual provienen los alumnos. El desarrollo biológico y sico-motor de los niños depende de factores que son previos a la escuela en el tiempo; además, durante el mismo período escolar el apoyo material e intelectual que tengan los alumnos en su propio medio incidirá en su motivación para el estudio y en sus capacidades para adaptarse a la cultura de la escuela y aprender. La relación entre las características socio-económicas de las familias y el rendimiento escolar de los niños está comprobada en exceso. Es importante aislar los efectos de este tipo de variables, de aquellos que dependen exclusivamente del sistema escolar; para aplicar las medidas correctivas que correspondan. Por otra parte, al medir los logros escolares no se trata de desincentivar a los docentes que cumplen la labor más difícil con comunidades social y económicamente empobrecidas. La comparación respecto a contextos sociales semejantes, agregará al parámetro nacional (meta deseable), un parámetro contextualizado (meta alcanzable y mínima).

Ficha del establecimiento. Este instrumento está dirigido a establecer las condiciones materiales y de recursos humanos con que cuenta el establecimientos en general, así como su posición dentro de un contexto urbano o rural. La hipótesis subyacente a la medición de las facilidades materiales del establecimiento es que ellas favorecen el proceso de enseñanza aprendizaje, pero además se suponen asociadas a las características del contextos en que operan. Aun cuando no se tengan conclusiones definitivas respecto a los efectos del número de alumnos por curso, si los hay respecto a la proporción profesor/alumnos y a cursos simples o multigrados. Además de la importancia de los recursos materiales y humanos como variables independientes respecto a los resultados escolares, ellas son relevantes de medir en la medida que establecen las condiciones en que se opera y el grado de carencias y costos de intentar mejoras en este sentido.

Este instrumento también permite obtener mediciones generales sobre el establecimiento respecto a indicadores tradicionales de calidad tales como repitencia, reprobación, deserción y rotación.

b) Instrumentos diseñados para medir los logros de los alumnos.

En este punto se señalarán los criterios generales que se tuvieron para seleccionar este conjunto de pruebas. A cada prueba se adjunta su propia fundamentación y los objetivos y logros que pretenden medir.

Se ofrecen pruebas de logros instruccionales y una prueba de caracter complementario para ser aplicada en 4o básico.

¿Por qué medir logros instruccionales? Se sabe que la escuela cumple múltiples funciones, pero hay una que le es central y que sólo puede ser cumplida por ella. Se define esta función como la adquisición por parte de los alumnos de una relación fluida con el conocimiento; relación que permitirá adquirir, buscar, organizar, relacionar, aplicar y elaborar conocimiento. Se postula que mientras la escuela no cumpla esta función con calidad, deja de asumir su tarea más propia y reproduce diferencias sociales al no equipar a sus alumnos con las herramientas básicas que se requieren para desempeñarse activa y autónomamente en la sociedad.

¿Por qué una prueba complementaria para medir competencias sociales? El objetivo de esta prueba es, como su nombre lo indica, complementar la medición de adquisición de conocimientos con la de adquisición de competencias que les sean útiles a los alumnos en su vida cotidiana. Se entiende que el aprendizaje es el proceso a través del cual se logran capacidades o competencias que se requieren para actuar en la vida. Por competencias se entiende el manejo de las distinciones linguísticas necesarias para actuar en determinados dominios. Las competencias que en esta prueba se han pretendido medir son para distinguir entre derechos y responsabilidades, para establecer los contactos y solicitar la ayuda necesaria con la finalidad de lograr determinado objetivo (constituir red de ayuda), para imaginar acciones posibles, para distinguir lo que es fáctico de lo posible de alterar, para reconocer sentimientos, para fundar juicios, para seguir instrucciones, y para reconocer las situaciones en que se hace necesario imaginar nuevas acciones porque la relación con las cosas, personas o con el mundo ha sido interrumpida por algún imprevisto. Se deduce que estas capacidades son necesarias para actuar en diversos dominios; en el caso de la prueba las hemos referido a la familia, a la escuela, al entorno geográfico, etc.

¿Por qué se han considerado logros instruccionales en castellano y matemáticas? Se considera que estas asignaturas entregan las herramientas culturales básicas, que son los objetivos mínimos de cualquier educación primaria. Tienen esta característica porque son indispensables para adquirir conocimientos en cualquier otra asignatura, pero además sin ellos no es posible lograr una integración social activa en la sociedad mayor, que les permita aprovechar de los beneficios y oportunidades que ésta les brinde.

Se considera que las capacidades linguísticas son el principal factor de discriminación social en la vida adulta, como también lo son en el desempeño escolar. El lenguaje, que está a la base de todo conocimiento, es lo que permite actuar eficazamente al establecer las distinciones adecuadas a los dominios en que se está operando. Sin él no es posible interactuar ni relacionarse con otros. Es por esto que se le ha dado tanta importancia al castellano, especialmente comprensión y redacción.

El manejo matemático, a su vez, es la incorporación a otro lenguaje que se requiere permanentemente en la vida cotidiana y permite entrar al mundo de la ciencia y del trabajo. Su lógica subyace a la filosofía y a la mecánica; todo niño debe manejarla.

¿Por qué aplicar pruebas en distintos niveles? Ya se ha dicho que todos los niños no ingresan a la escuela en las mismas condiciones. El manejo conceptual y linguístico requerido para la lecto escritura, el manejo de códigos elaborados, varía por estratos sociales y no es facil de adquirir cuando no es utilizado, reforzado y estimulado en el medio en que se vive. Requiere de tiempo y este es un logro que consume gran parte de las energías de profesores en sectores populares en los primeros grados de básica. Una medición que no considere los niveles de entrada en este sentido, desconoce el logro fundamental de las escuelas en estos sectores. El instrumento diseñado para medir este dominio conceptual permitirá establecer el punto desde el cual se parte y valorizará la labor docente en estos grados y sectores.

Se sugiere aplicar pruebas internas al final de primer grado, para que la escuela cuente con un indicador respecto a las medidas correctivas que debe aplicar. El aplicar una prueba de caracter público en segundo grado, tiene el sentido de una advertencia en casos de problemas serios en cuanto a calidad cuando aún hay tiempo de reparar. A fines de 4o básico se estima que debe haberse logrado el dominio total de las herramientas culturales básicas y que, si en este grado no se han superado los déficit contextuales, el proceso de escolarización será gravemente dificultado.

7. Un Sistema para la Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación.

Al hablar de **sistema** de evaluación, no nos referimos sólo a la base instrumental, sino a un proceso institucional para mejorar la calidad de la educación.

El analisis de diversas experiencias de evaluación de la calidad ha enseñado que para que esto se pueda realizar en forma exitosa, un sistema de evaluación de la calidad de la educación debiera pasar por tres etapas en su desarrollo, que no necesariamente son prerrequisitos una de otra: a) Sensibilización de los agentes educativos, b) Diseño y Ejecución del Sistema de

Evaluación y c) Difusión de Resultados y orientaciones para la acción.

a) Sensibilización de los agentes educativos.

Se trata de estructurar, en una primera etapa, una estrategia de sensibilización en todos los agentes educativos que tienda a aceptar como útil y necesario la instauración de sistemas de evaluación permanente, de tal forma, de ir generando, en el tiempo, una cultura evaluativa que permita interpretar correctamente la realidad educacional, mejorar los niveles de participación y compromiso de los distintos miembros de la sociedad y distribuir en forma más justa y equilibrada los recursos técnicos y financieros hacia los sectores más deficitarios.

Por una parte se debe utilizar una estrategia de acercamiento las autoridades que son responsables de la toma de decisiones en los niveles locales y centrales, no sólo del aparato educativo sino que de la administración pública, en general. En estos niveles es necesario crear conciencia que la evaluación del proceso educativo es una acción de largo plazo, que les permitirá, en primer término, poseer información precisa y confiable para mejorar sus decisiones; les permitirá planificar el desarrollo de los sistemas educativos en función de las necesidades que el aparato productivo requiere. Asimismo, contar con esta información permitirá dimensionar los problemas y mejorar los niveles de comunicación y lenguaje entre las propias autoridades, definiendo con mayor exactitud criterios para la jerarquización y solución de problemas.

La defnción del papel que le corresponderá a la comunidad docente, es un paso crucial,debido a que el éxito del buen uso de la información recogida depende especialmente en la credibilidad que estos antecedentes tengan para el conjunto de profesores. Se analizará la conveniencia y la forma de su participación respecto a diferentes aspéctos del sistema de medición, como por ejemplo la selección de losindicadores de calidad , los procedimientos evaluativosa utilizarse, el diseño, construcción, validación y aplicación de los instrumentos a emplear en la medición, la interpretación de los resultados y especialmente, en la definición de estrategias de acción que permitan reorientar el trabajo escolar.

Consideramos necesario definir en esta etapa, una línea de acción que incorpore activamente a los organismos dedicados a la investigación y experimentación en el campo educativo. Es esencial comprometer su participación de tal forma que orienten sus recursos humanos más calificados al diseño, ejecución y evaluación de la Calidad de Educación. El compromiso y participación de estos agentes es fundamental para la posterior generación de líneas de investigación que tengan efectivamente una relevancia y pertinencia con el quehacer educativo.

También incorporar a la Familia en la discusión del problema educativo, particularmente a los Padres y Apoderados. Sensibilizar en este ámbito, permitirá que la relación Escuela-Comunidad se fortalezca en la medida que ambos estamentos distingan compromisos que les son comunes, establezcan niveles de responsabilidad que les son propios y aumenten los niveles de participación en la gestión educativa.

Otro agente educativo importante de sensibilizar son los medios de comunicación social, verdaderos formadores de opinión. Ciertamente este problema es complejo y difícil de abordar en nuestros países especialmente cuando se tiene en cuenta los múltiples intereses que coexisten al interior de cada medio de difusión. Sin embargo, creemos que es necesario diseñar una política hacia ese sector que explicite la utilidad que estos medios tienen en la implementación de un sistema de evaluación. Por su alcance e influencia es posible hacerlos participar en campañas de difusión acerca de la necesidad de mejorar los actuales resultados que existen en los sistemas educativos, promover foros, encuestas de opinión, reportajes específicos, etc.

Finalmente los alumnos deben ser informados de los propósitos que se pretende con la aplicación de instrumentos de medición, pero la información debe ser planteada solicitando su colaboración y compromiso para que demuestren sus reales capacidades.

b. Diseño y Ejecución del Sistema de Evaluación Calidad de la Educación.

En esta etapa se pretende diseñar, obtener y procesar la información que se considera necesaria para evaluar el sistema educativo. Aquí se establecen todos los procedimientos técnicos y administrativos que supone debe tener el Sistema en cuestión. El criterio básico que debe operar es que lo que se desee evaluar sea FACTIBLE DE MEDIR y que tenga la suficiente RELEVANCIA

c. Difusión de resultados.

Finalmente, se contempla una última etapa que es la difusión de los resultados y las orientaciones que se desprenden para mejorar la Calidad de la Educación. Lo fundamental es que todas las personas involucradas entiendan y manejen con facilidad los informes que proporcionen los resultados, se generen estrategias de acción que permitan mejorar los actuales resultados y proponer acciones innovadoras y creativas que apunten a la solución de los problemas detectados.

THE METHODOLOGY AND INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION

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Schools all over the world have always been confronted with uneasy questions about the ultimate aims of education, the best curriculum, and the best school structure and organisation conducive to effective learning and good quality education. The answers to these questions represent a perennial problem. Nevertheless, better answers have always been sought through evaluation. Educationists look at the school curriculum simply as a plan to enhance pupil learning, and it is the professional role of the teacher to put this into practice. Without evaluation he cannot judge his success because evaluation, needless to say, is an integral part of the process of education.

WHAT IS EVALUATION?

The problem of definition has always been a real one in education as well as in other fields of human endeavour. This is particularly true of the definition of evaluation. Literature on the subject is often presented with paradox, ambiguity and confusion. Nevertheless, there is a general agreement as to the distinction between traditional and modern concepts of evaluation. The former, frequently referred to as a narrow concept, reflects a traditional philosophy of education which is centred on retention and memorization of information. According to this philosophy evaluation means exams and nothing else. Pupils are judged on the basis of their performance in exams usually geared to recalling stored information in their memories.

In view of the criticism levelled against such exams and with the development of the educational theory, evaluation moved into using a newly devised form of sophisticated exams, known as tests, which marked a new era in the history of evaluation. Further development followed soon after. The case has always been that the changing philosophy and practices in learning have reflected in changing ways and methods of evaluation. At present, more emphasis is given to evaluating the process and outcomes of learning rather than to evaluating what is memorized or retained in the mind of the pupil.

The dictionary defines evaluation as the determination of the value or worth of something. A broad and modern definition of evaluation should distinguish between evaluation as a product and as a process. As a product, evaluation means judgements and decisions. According to this definition, evaluation is a human judgemental endeavour. In fact, some scholars distinguish evaluation from rendering judgement. To them, evaluation is the determination of the kind of decisions that have to be made for consideration by appropriate decision makers. (Alkin, 1969, p.2) As a process, evaluation means the collection, classification, analysis and interpretation of information (quantitative or qualitative) about a specific situation of behaviour with a view to manipulating this information for rendering judgement or making decisions.

This broad definition shows that evaluation is a complicated process which involves a variety of activities and follows a scientifically defined process and procedure. Evaluation, in another relevant definition, means to determine the degree of congruency between performance and intended objectives or purposes.

Central to the concept of evaluation is the term 'measurement' which represents the core of the process of evaluation. We need measurements in order to evaluate, i.e. to render judgement and make decisions.

Measurement simply means assigning a mark or figure to unmeasured quantity or quality by using numerical or standard units. Measurement may be direct, as in the case of measuring the length of something by a metre, or indirect, as in the case of measuring temperature by the rising level of mercury in a thermometer. Another example of indirect measurement is I.Q. tests.

Measurement is determined by several factors including the nature of the measured object and the ends and means of measurements.

It is worth noting that some writers use the term 'assessment' interchangeably with measurement. Others use it synonymously with evaluation. Some writers say that evaluation has a wider meaning than assessment without explaining how.

The Encyclopaedia of Educational Research, after reviewing the different definitions and purposes of evaluation, sadly summarizes the situation as follows (1982, Vol 2, p.595):

"An authoritative definition of program evaluation remains elusive because of the lack of consensus about evaluation purposes. There is no single right definition of evaluation."

EVALUATION PURPOSES:

Literature on evaluation suggests that evaluation serves several purposes, the most important of which are:

- to render judgement on the worth and value of educational objectives.
- to pinpoint the weaknesses and strengths of the educational programme as a diagnostic function of evaluation.
- to validate hypotheses and assumptions underlying the educational process.
- to help teachers know their pupils as individuals and to better understand their capabilities and difficulties.
- to elevate pupils' motivation for learning and discovery.
- to render educational reform and improvement and help adjust the educational programme to the needs of the individual and society.

Evaluation may also serve planning and policy purposes. Furthermore, it may serve cost effective purposes of the educational programme. In fact, cost effective education depends on the manipulation of evaluation data.

To summarize, evaluation in the modern sense is a generative and dynamic process aimed at the improvement of educational practices, the development of new directions and orientations and re-shaping the school curriculum and the educational design. In fact, evaluation has become an all-purpose tool of modern education.

PRINCIPLES OF EVALUATION:

There are certain principles which are essential to effective evaluation.

1. Evaluation should be related to intended purposes and should be conclusive of all levels of educational objectives.
2. Instruments and methods of evaluation should be diversified, objective, valid, and reliable.
3. Evaluation should be democratic and humanitarian and should recognise the pupils' individual differences.
4. Evaluation should be economical in terms of time, effort and resources.
5. Evaluation should be continuous and should form an integral part of the educational process through a well-designed feedback system.

TYPES OF EVALUATION:

There are several types of evaluation depending on the way they are classified. In fact, there is no general agreement as to how they should be classified. Undue classifications exist in evaluation literature. Some writers refer to diagnostic, quantitative and qualitative evaluation as separate types. In our opinion they do not represent separate types of evaluation. Because both formative and summative evaluation may have diagnostic, quantitative and qualitative purposes of evaluation. Qualitative evaluation of learning can be made in terms of the complexity levels of the outcome as in Bloom's taxonomy, for example.

More recently, reference has been made to macro and micro evaluation. The former is concerned with the evaluation of output of the main system in relation to its general goals. It is usually used by strategies for educational development.

The latter is concerned with the evaluation of minor aspects of sub-systems such as educational practices in the classroom.

However, because of the limited scope of this paper we are going to deal briefly with the most common types of evaluation.

Formative evaluation:

The word formative literally means to give shape to something. Formative evaluation then means the kind of evaluation that gives shape to the subject or object under evaluation through successive evaluation. It is regarded as part of the process of curriculum development because of the continued feedback it provides. Its main purpose is to determine educational growth and progress and the degree of mastery of acquired knowledge and skills. Mastery learning, therefore, heavily depends on formative evaluation. Data provided by a series of measurement and assessment renders revision and adjustment of the pupil learning and the educational programme possible.

It is noteworthy that continuous assessment, if inappropriately used, can represent continued strain on the teacher and the learner. An alternative to continuous assessment, as suggested by some writers (Bread & Hartley, 1982, p.274) is intermittent assessment which is usually undertaken at intervals.

Formative evaluation in Arab educational systems usually takes the form of periodic and interim exams. These exams, which may be written or oral, are often used for diagnostic purposes.

Summative evaluation:

Summative evaluation is concerned with the general assessment of the educational programme or the achievement of the learner over an entire or major parts of the courses of study. It may also be used to predict future success of the learner in subsequent courses. Summative evaluation which comes at the end of the educational programme helps us to reach a decision as to whether we should stop the programme or allow it to continue.

In Arab educational systems summative evaluation, in general, takes the form of final exams which may have diagnostic value.

Pupil evaluation:

Pupil evaluation is concerned with the assessment of the total growth of the pupil. It may be formative or summative, and it may be part of programme evaluation. The most common type of pupil evaluation is that made by the teacher and it is usually made on the basis of observations and tests.

One sign of the changing practices in evaluation is the encouragement of self and peer assessment.

In their interesting investigation on self and peer assessment, Boud and Lublin (1983) suggest that it is important that the student should develop a capacity for self assessment.

In today's educational practice in advanced systems, self and peer assessments are being encouraged. This is in sharp contrast to the prevailing situation in Arab educational systems.

Teacher evaluation:

Teacher evaluation is mainly concerned with the improvement of his or her teaching delivery system.

The main purposes of evaluating teachers, as reported by Bread and Hartley (1984, p.292) are:

1. To improve teacher's skills and knowledge about teaching and

2. To use the information obtained about a person's teaching skill for certification or in decisions concerning promotion.

The most common way of evaluating the work of the teacher is the ratings of school inspectors and the formal evaluation of headmasters. This is particularly true of the Arab world and other developing nations. In advanced educational systems teacher evaluation may also be made by colleagues and students.

School evaluation:

The main purpose of school evaluation is to assess its internal and external productivity. This may seem a herculean task. Evaluation of the work of the school should be based on objective facts and systematic study. The general considerations for effective evaluation are also relevant to the evaluation of the school. These include the participation of all members of the school and the manipulation of different types of evaluation methods and instruments. In the Arab world the most common method of evaluating the work of a school is on the basis of its pupils' performance in the general examinations on the national level. In rare cases (Qatar, for example), some studies have been made on the productivity of the school system.

METHODOLOGY OF EVALUATION:

The Encyclopaedia of Educational Research (1982, Vol 2, pp.598-600) divides evaluation methodogogies into four groups: experimentalists, describers, cost-benefit analysts, and eclectics.

1. Experimentalists are concerned with establishing casual links between programme and outcomes.

2. Describers believe in descriptions of the programme context and personal views of the participants as meaningful data for evaluation.

3. Cost-benefit analysts, whose approach is borrowed from economics, focus on the anticipated worth and benefits of the programme in relation to its anticipated costs.

4. Eclectics, as the term suggests, draw upon various trends. Eclectic methodology of evaluation can be best explained by the following words

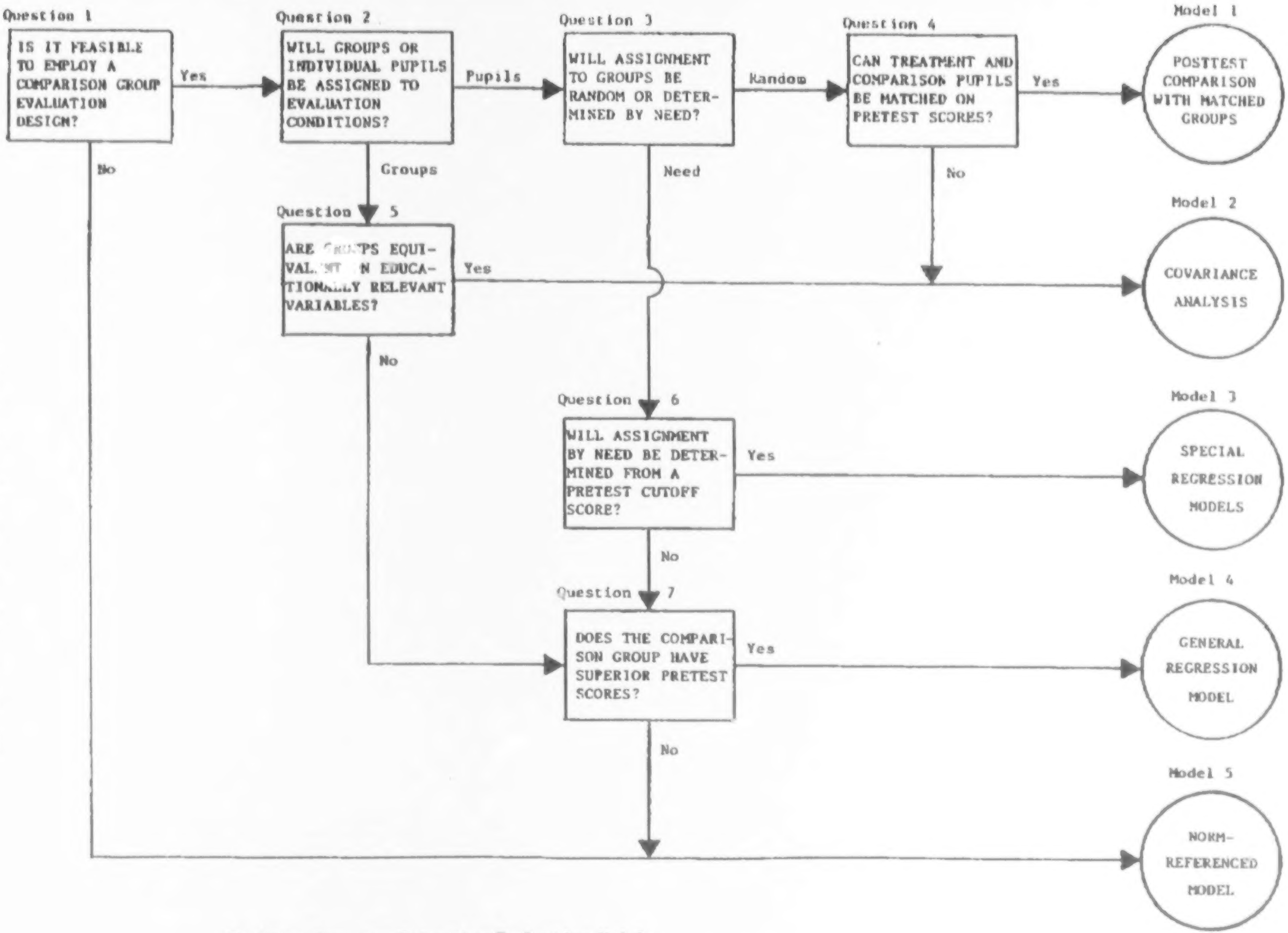
of Cronbach and others (1980):

"The evaluator will be wise not to declare allegiance to either quantitative manipulative - summative methodology or qualitative - naturalistic - descriptive methodology. He can draw on both styles at appropriate times and in appropriate amounts. Those who advocate an evaluation plan devoid of one kind of information or another carry the burden of justifying such exclusions."

These four categories of evaluation methodology are by no means inclusive. There are other groups of scholars who do not belong to either group or category. However, there is no clear cut demarcation line between one methodology and the other. Some inter-relations exist and each methodology has, of course, its own limitations. Methodology of educational evaluation according to Hopkins (1978, p.29) can be so technically complicated, sophisticated in conception, and costly, and of such long duration that they require the dedicated participation of highly trained specialists conversant with the latest in social science theory, research methods, and statistical techniques. Such highly complex evaluations are usually conducted by specialized evaluation staff. At the other extreme, there are many evaluation tasks that can be understood easily and can be carried out by persons of modest expertise and experience.

Relevant to the methodology of evaluation is the process of evaluation. This process involves the determination of educational objectives, i.e. the intended outcome of learning and the way they should be measured, the selection of an evaluation design and appropriate measurements, the implementation of the designed evaluation, the collection, analysis and interpretation of data and, finally, writing of the evaluation report. The introduction of the necessary changes and adjustments is a subsequent step in the process which requires certain decisions to be taken.

There are many evaluation models from which evaluators can choose. Unfortunately, some of these models are of so little practical value that they seem to be no more than a mental exercise. The following figure (14, p.47) which shows how to select evaluation models seems to be a good example.


Question 1
IS IT FEASIBLE TO EMPLOY A COMPARISON GROUP EVALUATION DESIGN?
Yes
No
Question 2
WILL GROUPS OR INDIVIDUAL PUPILS BE ASSIGNED TO EVALUATION CONDITIONS?
Pupils
Groups
Question 3
WILL ASSIGNMENT TO GROUPS BE RANDOM OR DETERMINED BY NEED?
Random
Need
Question 4
CAN TREATMENT AND COMPARISON PUPILS BE MATCHED ON PRETEST SCORES?
Yes
No
Model 1
POSTTEST COMPARISON WITH MATCHED GROUPS
Question 5
ARE GROUPS EQUIVALENT IN EDUCATIONALLY RELEVANT VARIABLES?
Yes
No
Model 2
COVARIANCE ANALYSIS
Question 6
WILL ASSIGNMENT BY NEED BE DETERMINED FROM A PRETEST CUTOFF SCORE?
Yes
No
Model 3
SPECIAL REGRESSION MODELS
Question 7
DOES THE COMPARISON GROUP HAVE SUPERIOR PRETEST SCORES?
Yes
No
Model 4
GENERAL REGRESSION MODEL
Model 5
NORM-REFERENCED MODEL

Decision Tree for Selecting Evaluation Models

Decision Tree for Selecting Evaluation Models

INSTRUMENTS OF EVALUATION:

The instruments of educational evaluation are relevant to its methodology. They include surveys, interviews, tests, questionnaires, opinionnaires, field visits, observation sheets, etc. In social sciences, including education, we must accept a certain degree of uncertainty regarding the instruments of evaluation. We must also admit that for obvious reasons quantitative aspects of evaluation are relatively more controllable and measurable than qualitative aspects. The technical and scientific considerations for the construction of evaluation instruments are beyond the scope of this paper. Though measurements belong to the domain of psychology their underlying epestimological aspects belong to philosophy. What should be measured? How should it be measured? Induction and deduction approaches in the scientific method of evaluation, criteria for work and value judgement - from which evaluation is derived. These are just some examples of the contributions of philosphy to evaluation.

Exams and tests:

Tests are simply tools for evaluation. They themselves should be evaluated before they can be used for evaluation. There are several kinds of tests designed to measure mental abilities, personal traits, values and attitudes. Each kind of test has its merits and demerits. Good evaluation should use a variety of tests. However, the most commonly used tests in schools are achievement tests. These include essay exams and objective and standard tests. The merits of the essay type of exams include the following:

- they are easy to prepare and administer.

- they can measure a wide range of abilities, such as independent and critical thinking, appreciation, imagination, analysis, and problem solving.

- they show the verbal fluency and expression of the pupil.

Their demerits include the following:

- they do not cover testing of all kinds of abilities, and all aspects of school syllabuses.
- they are subjective on the part of the pupil as well as on the part of the teacher when he corrects them.
- research evidence, as pointed out by Bread and Hartley (1984, p.277) suggests that examinations in general tend to measure low levels of cognitive abilities and ignore high levels of mental abilities such as the ability to synthesize (McGuire, 1963), (Spurgin, 1967), (Black, 1968) and (Beard & Pole, 1971).

Objective tests:

There are a wide variety of objective tests. They include multiple choice, true and false, and matching tests. The detailed analysis of these tests is beyond the scope of this paper. However, the merits of objective tests include the following:

- they are quick to administer and easy to mark.
- they can cover most parts of the school syllabuses.
- they take little time in reading and answering the questions on the part of the pupil.

The demerits of objective tests include the following:

- their preparation consumes much time and effort.
- they do not test important abilities such as verbal fluency and creative thinking.
- they test mostly factual information.
- they require detailed knowledge of the school syllabus.

- results of objective tests are distorted by guessing and cheating.

Criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests:

Criterion-referenced and norm-referenced tests are the most common types of objective tests. Both types of tests assess the learner on the basis of his performance but they differ in the way this performance is related. In norm-referenced tests it is related to the performance of the learner's peer group. Whereas in criterion-referenced tests it is related to the predetermined mastery level as specified by instructional objectives, i.e. specific criterion or standard. Both types of tests also differ in the grading system. In the case of norm-referenced tests the learner's performance is graded A, B, C, D or F; but in criterion-referenced tests it is graded either Pass or Fail. Generally speaking, norm-referenced tests are more common in educational practice.

In advanced systems of education there are catalogues of available tests which evaluators can use. There are also test banks from which they can select questions on different subjects and at different levels of difficulty. It is now possible to do this with the assistance of a computer.

In Arab educational systems the widely used instruments of evaluation are the essay type written exam in addition to practical and oral exams. Objective and standardized tests are not common if not available. There seems to be some difficulty in adapting to these types of tests, either because they are difficult to construct or because they are inappropriate for some disciplines. However, it is noteworthy that in recent years significant steps have been taken to improve the examination systems in Arab education. Some principles of modern evaluation have been introduced. Nevertheless, there is still general dissatisfaction with the present system.

In a document published by the Arab Bureau of Education in the Arab Gulf States (1983, p.173) it is stated that there is ample evidence to suggest that modern educational evaluation is not an integral part of the educational system. This is an alarming statement which indicates the existence of a serious situation. It also points to what should be done.

Evaluation report:

One of the most important steps in the process of evaluation is the reporting of results to present them properly and bring them to the attention of the people concerned. The language in which the evaluation report is written naturally depends upon the audience to whom it is addressed. Some can understand the highly technical language of evaluation, others cannot. It is important, of course, to satisfy both. A complete and concise report would meet the requirements of specialists; but a brief summary of the content of the report and the significant results may be appropriate for non-specialists.

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EVALUATION OF POLICIES, PLANS AND REFORMS OF EDUCATION IN BANGLADESH

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EVALUATION OF POLICIES, PLANS AND REFORMS OF EDUCATION IN BANGLADESH

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1. INTRODUCATION

Education is the backbone of a nation. It is now considered as a basic human right. It trains the human mind and helps to develop human skills. It plays a significant role in the development process of a nation. In developing countries where people are continuously facing the new challenges to meet their basic needs, investment in education is infact investment in human resources development. It is specially true for Bangladesh. Because, Bangladesh being a poor nation its investment efforts in education aim at improving the lot of common people. In order to accelerate the pace of economic and social development and also to raise the standard of living of the common people, the concept of human resource development is significantly important to Bangladesh where vast majority of people are illiterate and live from hand to mouth and where recurrent natural calamities stands on the way of overall development process of the country.

Since independence, education in Bangladesh has been a major concern for planners and policy makers. Our constitution is committed to providing schooling upto elementary level (i.e. upto fifth grade) to every child in the age group of 6-10 years. The Government consituted several committees and commissions on education to suggest ways and means to provide schooling to children. Based on the recommendations of these committees and commissions, the Government formulated different policies and reforms at different times. Significantly, the compulsory universalization of primary education

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remained as one of the priority areas. By a recent announcement, Government made primary education compulsory. Problems affecting children's education have been identified and steps are now being taken. If the drive for education for all by 2000 AD is to succeed in Bangladesh, Basic Education needs to be understood and imparted in its true sense.

2. THE ECONOMY AND THE PEOPLE

Bangladesh is a country with a very population density, limited natural resources and wide spread poverty. Annual per capita income is only US$ 170. A high rate of population growth (about 2.5% per annuam) and adult literacy rate of only 31% (during 1989), act as major constraints on economic and social development. Poverty and population growth are the two most important socio-economic issues related to education. Others include unemployment, subsistence-level of agrarian economy, food deficit, inequality of income, malnutrition and wide spread lack of services of modern instruments of communication.

Bangladesh, the habitant of an old nation, is a new state. Born in 1971, though brief armed struggle it is "a late comer to the fractions sisterhood of nation-states." The country is, blessed with linguistic and cultural homogeneity, but remains economically, industrially and technologically under developed.

Nearly half of the GDP, and of exports and 60% of employment are accounted for by the agricultural sector. Industry accounts for only 14% of the GDP. The economy is heavily dependent on foreign economic assistance.

The main handicap of the economy is also its principal asset - human resources. There is abundent supply of labour. However, the work force is comparatively less productive and largely unskilled principally on account of lack of basic education. The rate of enrolment in school is low, 67% (at primary level (compared to 78% of the region), 20% at the secondary level (compared to regional average of 25%) and only 5% in higher education (compared to regional average of 7%).

3. EDUCATION SECTOR : GENERAL OVERVIEW

Education in Bangladesh stands at cross roads to-day. The qualitative improvement and the quantitative expansion of education can not meet emerging needs of the country. Several attempts were made in the past to restructure education at various levels. But, almost all of them failed to bring the desired results leaving wide open the problems of access, relevance, quality, resources and management. The future decades are likely to bring new demands and stresses together with unlimited opportunities. In order to enable our people to adjust in the new environment, it will require different preparations and strategy for human resource development.

3.1 The Existing System of Education:

The formal education system in Bangladesh comprises fove years of primary education (Grades 1-5), seven years of secondary education (Grades 6-12) and two to five years of higher education. Secondary education is sub-divided into three years of junior secondary (junior high school, grades 6-8) and two years of secondary (high school, grades 9-10) followed by two years of higher secondary or intermediate college education (grade 11-12). There are two public examinations

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leading to the award of the Secondary School Certificate (SSC) after grade 10, and the Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC) after grade 12. The HSC is the minimum requirement for entry to degree programmes. College degrees (pass degrees) are offered in two year college courses provided by the degree colleges. University degrees (honours degrees) are offered in the 7 universities and are, for the most part, three years of course work. Vocational and technical education is offered in the Vocational Training Institutes (8th grade pass students for two years), Polytechnicc (SSC pass students for a three year diploma) and the Engineering Colleges (HSC pass students for four year leading to a BE).

Parallel to the main stream of education, there exists a 5-tier Madrasah education system (Religious/Traditional education) with a 5-year Ibtedayee, 6-year Dakhil, 2-year Alim, 2-year Fazil and 2-year Kamil. The Madrasahs are required to adopt national curricula as a condition of government recognition and support.

3.2 Major issues and Problems in the Education Sector:

Primary education in Bangladesh presents a very gloomy picture. Most of the schools are ill-equipped, lacking in essential educational implements and other facilities. Low enrolment, high dropouts, repetition, inadequate physical facilities, unattractive academic environment, ineffective teaching, irrelevant curriculum are some of the major problems. About 30% of children of primary age shohort (age group 5+ to 9+) do not attend school at all and about 67% of those enrolled in grade-I drop-out before completing the 5-year cycle. The drop-out rate among the girls is significantly higher than those of boys. Lack of dedication on the part of teachers, lack of inadequate supervision and ineffective teaching actually render the primary school work unattractive.

The 5-year secondary level of education leading to the Secondary School Certificate is by and large in the private sector although generously supported by Government subvention. The system suffers from the problems of poor quality of teaching, large failures in the public examination, and lack of adequate physical and learning facilities. Instead of being a terminal stage with practical skills and competencies, it serves as a preparatory stage for entry to higher secondary/ intermediate college level. This stage is also characterised by disparity in the number of schools for boys and girls. Only 9% of the school in the secondary level are for girls while 91% are for boys. The enrolment ratio between boys and girls is about 3:1.

Between the tertiary level and the secondary levels two year higher secondary or intermediate level education is offered leading to the Higher Secondary Certificate. This stage also suffers from most of the maladies of secondary schools.

At the higher level of the education pyramid there is a college education leading to a Bachelor's Degree. There are 197 government colleges and 650 non-government colleges in Bangladesh which offer degree programmes. The major focus of studies in these colleges are humanities, science, medicine, engineering, law, commerce, agriculture, home economics and music. Most of the non-government colleges lack in basic minimum facilities. They offer courses in liberal education for which there is little demand in the employment market. The pressure of admission, however, has been on the increase in the prospect for securing white-collar jobs. Some of these colleges are run on commercial basis depending both on government grants as well as collecting high fees for sending the students for final examinations, and other charges for the full year without imparting effective instruction. The unplanned growth of colleges without basic facilities and adequate teaching staff has resulted in large number of failures in the terminal examinations.

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The apex of the tertiary level of education are universities. There are 7 established universities in the country of which 4 are general universities, one Engineering University, one Agricultural University, and one Islamic University. Two new universities are being established one at Sylhet and the other at Khulna. Inspite of this rapid expansion, there has been an erosion of confidance in higher education. It is argued that university education has ceased to be relevant and innovative in its complex relationships with the society. It is said that higher education is possibly a supply induced to intellectual inflation and that the university has become a place to keep the young people off the labour market for a number of years. Therefore, balance enrolments in science, engineering and technology, liberal arts and social sciences and professional educaiton are to be achieved on the basis of the present and future manpower requirements in the country.

In Bangladesh, the universities are self-governing institutions with 95% of their total expenditure provided by the government as block grants. A University Grants Commission (UGC) was established in 1973 to co-ordinate the activities of the universities and to distribute the government grants. However, because of the strong tradition of autonomy in the universities, the UGC has been unable to provide either effective long-term planning or qualtiy control. Nevertheless, pressure for making the universities accountable is increasing along with university costs. In the near future, it will be essential to restructure the enrolment system of higher education to make university authorities efficient and accountable but allow them to maintain reasonable autonomy.

Technical education in Bangladesh has a small-base compared with other categories of education. Directorate of Technical Education (DTE) created in 1961 has under its control 78 institutions (20 polytechnics, 1 graphic arts institute, 1 textile institute, 1 college of lether technology, 1 glass and ceramic institute, 51 vocational training institutes, 1 survey institute, 1 technical teachers training college, and 1 vocational teachers training institute). The four engineering colleges which were previously under DTE, have been made institutes of technology under an autonomous council.

The 51 VTIs under DTE offered a two-year programme after grade-8 and produce skilled workers. VTI in Bangladesh suffers from the following deficiencies: (a) under-utilization of existing training facilities, (b) weakness of curricula which have not been adjusted to the socio-economic needs and conditions of the country, (c) poor linkage with the industries, and (d) mismatch between outflows from the various levels of technical educaiton and demand in the labour market.

3.3 Financing of Education:

By any standards, government investment in education in Bangladesh is and has been excessively low. At present about 2% of GNP is spent on education as compared with a regional average of 3.5%. Education also receives less from government's development and revenue budget than other economic and social development sectors. In the national budget of 1989-90, education sector receives only 6.18% in the capital budget and 14.62% in the revenue budget indicating a low expenditure item comparing to neighbouring countries of South East Asia.

The Third Five Year Plan (1985-90) allocates 1170 crore to education. 48% goes to primary education, 11% to secondary educaitn, 5% to college education, 14% to technical/vocational education and 9% to university education.

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Over a 16-year period from 1971-72 to 1986-87 the total project assistance to Bangladesh reached to US$ 1,229.2 million. Out of this aggregate project aid, the share of education sector was about 3.5% of the total project aid.

The annual share of education in project aid to Bangladesh between 1971-72 and 1986-87 indicates a lack of any consistent pattern in the volume of aid given to education. It ranges from nil in 1971-72 and 1973-74 to 6.5% in 1986-87.

In the Second Five Year Plan (1981-85) the total project aid for all sectors was US$ 407.2 million. Of this total, US$ 78.3 million was allocated to education. During 1985-86 and 1986-87, the share of project aid in educaiton has increased to 5.31% to 6.50%.

As has been stated earlier Bangladesh expenditure on education as percentage of GNP is extremely low in global context or within the region. It is suggested that 3% of the GNP be allocated to education sector so that by the turn of the century Bangladesh may spend at least 5% of its GNP for education. In the line with the recommendations of the Tokyo Conference of Education Ministers, the Bangladesh Education Commission (1974) recommended that the total expenditure for education in Bangladesh should be raised to 5% of GNP.

3.4 Cost Recovery:

The level of resource mobilization for the sector has been relatively weak. Although the percent of public spending allocated to education has been rising recently, it is below that of the region and well below the average for all developing countries. Cost recovery through tution charges and fees is minimal, providing less than 5% of unit cost at the secondary level and only 1% at the university level.

3.5 Wastage:

In the primary grades only 23% of the students have been able to reach fifth grade in five years. This compares to a 55% average for all countries whose GNP is under US$ 400 per capita. The low enrolment rates are in part caused by the excessive wastage in the system, marked by high drop-out and repetition rates. Drop-out rates are very high, especially in the first grade when very youg children become easitly discouraged by over crowded classes and inadequate teaching, repetition rates average about 10% per year. At the secondary level, the drop-out rates are quite low, estimated to be under one percent. However, repetition rates are estimated to be over 15%. The two year intermediate college level requires an estimated five years of input to produce one HSC graduate. In the degree colleges there seems to be little drop-out or repetition, but the failure rates of those who sit for the B.A. or B.Sc pass degree average 65%. University failure rates are far lower, averaging only 20%. Wastage at this stage is caused by the excessive delays that keep students enrolled far beyond their normal period, placing extra demand upon faculty and facilities.

3.6 Government Subvention:

The government has been increasing its contributions to teachers' salaries in private secondary schools, Madrashas and colleges which has increased the level and share of recurrent expenditures in higher education without any commensurate improvement in quality.

Government subvention now gurantee that teachers in secondary schools, Madrashas and colleges receive a minimum of 70% of government salary and other benefits. This represents a dramatic rise of annual subsidy from Tk.58 crore in Fiscal Year 1982-83 to Tk.278 crore in Fiscal Year 1987-88. Any increase in recurrent cost obligations of this nature would provide little benefit to the sector as there would be very little if any impact on quality.

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4. REFORM MEASURES:

In Bangladesh despite good intentious and commitment, education does not seem to be geared to the strident needs of the society at large. The curriculum has not appropriately addressed the issues of socio-economic survival and development of the economy has not been significant. Education, as imparted, has not been able to raise the level of productivity and not appeared to the masses in its essential form: as a technology for survival, as a key to all round development in a distessed and economically backward society.

The people and government of Bangladesh agree with the nations of the world that every one has a right to education. They realise that education equips them to face the challenges of emerging times. They know that even in our troubled world basic learning needs of all can and must be met. It is with this realization that government introduces certain reform measures to improve the overall situation in the field of education.

In order to widen the base of primary education, the government has declared primary educatin free and compulsory. In near future basic education would be extented upto class VII and steps are now being taken to attain the goal of Universal Primary Education by the year 2000. It is only after attaining Universal Primary Education, the plan for achieving universal basic education can be effectively realised by the year 2010, the terminal year of its 20-year Perspective Plan (1990-2010). The government of Bangladesh hopes to realise basic education to all children youth and adults, aged 6-14, undergoing 8-year formal schooling by the year 2010.

At the secondary level, the government policy is to improve the quality of science education. Girls education from VI to VIII is declared as free out side the municipal area. This has been done to enourage the participation of more girls at secondary level. Side by side with the improvement of quality of secondary education, government intends to consolidate the vocational and technical education and at the same time wants to attain marginal expansion of university education with emphasis on science and technology. Programmes in primary education, secondary science education and technical education are currently being implemented with substantial external assistance. When completed these programmes will create significant infrastructure facilities in education sector.

The Fourth Five Year Plan is knocking at the door. The government is fully aware about the issues and problems of the education sector. Since independence (1971), the government has been struggling to meet the basic economic needs of the nation against handicaps of great poverty and high population growth. Despite a number of limitations, the government intends to (a) increase equitable access to primary and secondary education; (b) improve the quality of education at the primary and secondary levels; (c) strength the management capacity of primary and secondary sub-sectors; and (d) prepare future policies and programmes to reform the structure and financing of higher secondary and post-secondary levels during the Fourth Plan period.

5. GOVERNMENT POLICIES AND PLANS

Government Policies and Plans in the education sector has been drawn up within the framework of the existing system of education to meet the new emerging demands of the society.

In the next plan period priority will be given to educational development with largest allocation of resources to education in the overall national development strategy. Highest priority will be given to primary and mass education, reduction in dropouts, expansion of science and technology, technical and vocational education, teacher training, examination and curriculam reform, women education, university education and NGO activities.

5.1 In primary education, all out efforts will be made to achieve Universal Primary Education by the year 2000. Compulsory primary education will be introduced gradually in phases Begining with metropolitan and other large urban areas and finally rest of the country. New primary schools will be established in unscholled areas based on school mapping. A minimum learning package will be introduced in the primary school curriculum so that at the end of grade V every child is equipped with a set of congnitive and effective skill. To encourage girls enrolment more women teachers will be recruited so that the ratio of male and female teachers become at least 40:60 by the year 2000. For efficiency and quality, primary teachers will be recruited locally at upazila level. Major programmes in primary education will include construction of schools, replacement of RCC roofs, repair and renovation of flood damaged schools, sinking of tubewells, distribution of textbooks free of cost among primary school children. In addition, supply of teaching aids, learning materials and in-service training (cluster training) of primary teachers will continue.

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5.2 The current mass education programme of the Government providing adult literacy and non-formal education will be strengthened involving all nation building agencies and mobilisation community resources. The involvement and efforts of NGOs in non-formal education to supplement/complement the formal system of education will be encouraged.

5.3 In order to reduce the dropouts and repetition of students, various steps like improved supervision, effective teaching, attractive books, relevant curriculum, parental participation, management training of UPE personnel will continue to be strengthened. Enrolment at the priamry level is expected to increase from 8.9 million in 1985 to 11.77 million in 1990. The annual dropout rate in 1985 was about 22%. This rate decreased to about 18% in 1986 and 13% in 1987. The enrolment of girl students also increased from 43% in 1986 to 44% in 1987.

5.4 The existing gap between urban and rural schools in respect of teaching and physical facilities will be reduced through cooperative efforts by the local community and government. One boys and one girls secondary school will be nationalized in each upazila headquarters (excepting this there will be no need nationalization of secondary schools). Government will consider establishing quality secondary schools in metropolitan areas and increasing the intake capacity of existing government schools. Ten comprehensive schools will be set up in four divisional headquarters (6 in Dhaka, 2 in Chittagong and 1 each in Rajshahi and Khulna). One Aga Khan Foundation school is also expected to be set up in Dhaka on an experimental basis.

5.5 There will be no affiliation of new colleges in rural areas. In old 21 districts, one existing college will be developed as University College to offer honours and post-graduate courses. One of the aims of the Government's future plan is to establish and

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strengthen science and technology as basic component of the educational system. A national science and technology policy has been formulated with the aim of attaining scientific and technological competence and self reliance to enhance productivity and generate employment in various sectors of the economy. The on-going ADB-supported Secondary Science Education Project is supplying science equipment, in-service training to teachers, laboratory facilities to 4000 secondary schools. The second phase of this project is expected to start from July 1990. The project will support creation of additional physical facilities and supply of equipment and books of additionsl 4000 secondary schools teaching science subjects. A new post-secondary science education project is now under active consideration of the ADB. It will be launched from July 1990. Total number of 555 colleges of different catagories including some Madrasahs will be taken under this project. It is expected that the project will be a logical follow up to the on-going ADB-financed Secondary Science Education Project and will support the Government's efforts to strengthen science education at all levels, which, in turn, will develop the country's scientific and technological manpower.

5.6 In the field of technical education, the existing programme of quality, improvement and strengthening of polytechnics and BITs will continue. Under the IDA-assisted technical education project, repair/reconstruction and extension works, deveopment of learning materials, training of teachers and staffs, industrial attachment for students, supply of books, furniture, equipment, materials, etc. for BITs, TTCs, Textile and Leather Technology Colleges, Polytechnics and Monotechnics will continue. Under a separate UNDP assistance programme rapair and reconstruction works, supply of equipment and training of teachers for the College of Textile Technology will also continue. There will be no further revision of BIT structure in near future. Institutional linkages will be established between the vocational/technical institutes and industries. The existing courses of VTIs will be converted to SSC (vocational). This will have three options: a terminal certificate, entry to general system of education (HSC) and entry to Polytechnic Institutes.

5.7 Teacher education is a continuous process and its pre-service and in-service components are in-separable. The system of teacher education will be overhauled. The existing training institutes under the Ministry of Education such as, PTI, NAPE, TTC, and NIEAER will be restructured to achieve greater efficiency, relevance and effecitveness. A crash programme for the training of teachers at primary and secondary level will be undertaken immediately through decentralized system. NIEAER will be restructured to focus on training in educational administration and management only.

5.8 The present examination system encourages memorization of subject matter rather than the understanding of important principles and generalizations in a subject field. The nature of questions encourages many examinees adopt unfair means to secure good examination scores at any cost. As such, in near future, assessment in SSC and HSC level students will be based on 50% essay type and 50% objective type questions. Those who pass limited subjects at the SSC and HSC levels will be given pass certificates in those subjects only. The existing marking system of Secondary & Higher Secondary Boards will be computerized. In case of higher education, modified course system of examination based on annual examination by both internal and external examiners will be introduced in place of traditional system.

5.9 In our country, there can be no doubt that radical reform in curriculum at all level and particularly in science subjects had become over due. Our curriculum including the textbooks and other materials are outdated and do not reflect the advance in various sciences during the last half century. Hence, steps have already

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been taken by NCTB and other concerned bodies to develop new curricula for the elementary stage, secondary stage and also for the college and university stage beyond the high schools.

5.10 Women comprise almost half of the total population. Effective participation of women in development process therefore is a sin qua non for balanced socio-economic growth of the country. For accelerating women's education existing government policy is to fill up 60 per cent vacancies at the primary level with female teachers. As a result, the number of female teacher has increased from 24,576 in 1987 to 27,701 in 1988. Seperate hostels for girls students were constructed in Primary Training Institutes (PTIs) and additional book allowance is paid to the female trainees at the PTIs. A separate polytechnic has been established in Dhaka for girl students while 20% places have been reserved for girls in other 17 polytechnics.

5.11 Higher education will be organized according to the high level manpower requirements of the country so far it is practicable. Enrolment in the existing universities will be stabilized with greater emphasis on science and technology studies. The existing system of affiliating colleges will be delinked and the universities will concentrate only on teaching/research and degree awarding functions. Two affiliating universities will be established as examination and degree awarding bodies (non-teaching). The existing system of university administration will be re-examined with a view to establish greater efficiency and accountability. The present session jam of the universities will be cleared with a time-frame of 2 years and steps will be taken to eliminate any future blockage of sessions. An open univeristy will be established in the next plan period to provide facilities for training teachers to uplift their professional qualities, to promote general and professional, formal and non-formal type of education. The feasibility study for an open university is being conducted under the supervision of a high

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powered interministerial steering committee headed by the Education Secretary.

5.12 NGOs in Bangladesh are playing an important role in non-formal education. Keeping conformity with sectoral priority the government will provide subvention to NGOs for implementation of Mass Education Programme. It is estimated that at present about 30% of the population aged 11 years and above are literate. With the participation of NGOs in Mass Education Programme, it is expected that at the end of the Third Five Year Plan, literacy rate in the project areas will increase from 30% to 46%. The formal education system is not accessible to all. The structure and operational aspects of non-formal education can be carefully designed in any community in accordance with the community's need. This task can be performed successfully by the NGOs. If properly designed, it can cater the needs of the special target groups.

5.13 Education is not a privilege, but it is a right. Human resources equipped with better education, are a basic input in the development process of the society. Thus education should get a preference over other sectors in Bangladesh, and as a matter of policy recommendation we should go for allocating more fund on education in the national plans in our attempt to combat poverty and accelerate the pace of development in the country. We must remember that unless our people are developed i.e. they are given proper education all our efforts in all other fields will be wasted.

The End

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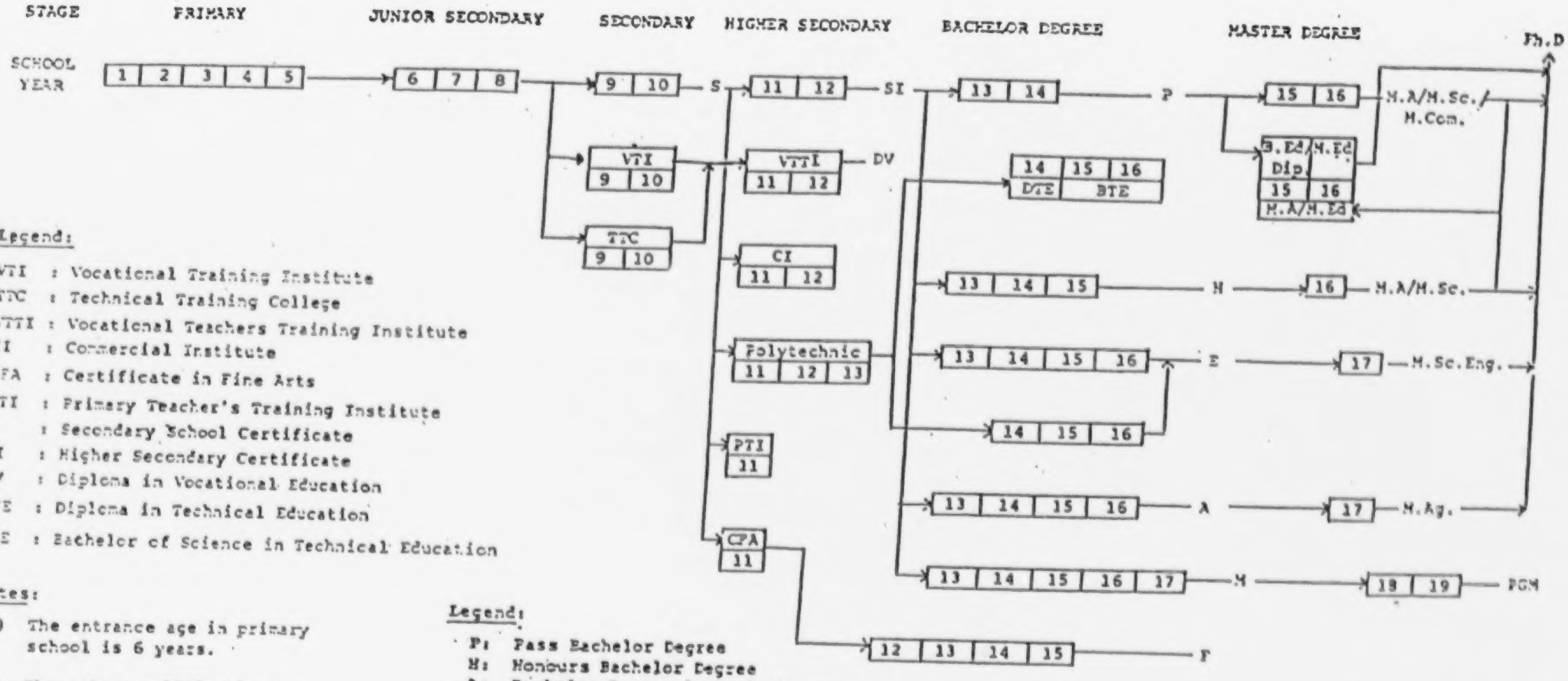
Figure 1: STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION SYSTEM IN BANGLADESH, 1988


STAGE
PRIMARY
JUNIOR SECONDARY
SECONDARY
HIGHER SECONDARY
BACHELOR DEGREE
MASTER DEGREE
Ph.D
SCHOOL YEAR
1 2 3 4 5
6 7 8
9 10
S
11 12
SI
13 14
P
15 16
M.A/M.Sc./ M.Com.
VTI 9 10
VTTI 11 12
DV
TTC 9 10
14 15 16
DTE
BTE
B.Ed/Dip.
M.Ed
15 16
M.A/M.Ed
CI 11 12
13 14 15
H
16
M.A/M.Sc.
Polytechnic 11 12 13
13 14 15 16
E
17
M.Sc.Eng.
14 15 16
PTI 11
13 14 15 16
A
17
M.Ag.
CFA 11
13 14 15 16 17
M
18 19
PGM
12 13 14 15
F

Legend:

VTI : Vocational Training Institute
TTC : Technical Training College
VTTI : Vocational Teachers Training Institute
CI : Commercial Institute
CFA : Certificate in Fine Arts
PTI : Primary Teacher's Training Institute
S : Secondary School Certificate
SI : Higher Secondary Certificate
DV : Diploma in Vocational Education
DTE : Diploma in Technical Education
BTE : Bachelor of Science in Technical Education

Notes:

(1) The entrance age in primary school is 6 years.

(2) The entry qualification for PTI in respect of girls is SSC but in respect of boys is HSC.

Legend:

P: Pass Bachelor Degree
H: Honours Bachelor Degree
A: Bachelor Degree in Agriculture
E: Bachelor Degree in Engineering
M: Bachelor Degree in Medicine and Surgery
F: Bachelor Degree in Fine Arts
B.Ed.: Bachelor Degree in Education
M.A./M.Ed.: Master Degree in Education
PGM: Post Graduate Degree in Medicine
Ph.D: Doctor of Philosophy

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Figure 2

SUMMARY OF SUB-SECTORAL TARGETS AND STRATEGIES

SUBSECTOR : PRIMARY EDUCATION

Objectives/Targets	Constraints	Strategies/policies during 1990-2000
In order ot achieve Universal Primary Education by 2000		
(a) Raising gross enrolment rate from 67% (in 1989) to 80% or more in 1995 and 90% by the year 2000	(a) Inadequate and less acccessible network	(ai) Introduction of Compulsory Primary education. (aii) On the basis of school mapping exercises establishment of new schools in currently underserved areas. (aiii) Establishment of satellite schools in large villages intersected by rivers/canals/busy highways etc. (aiv) Improving capacity utilization of existing schools. (av) Utilising local governments, NGOs, communities, families, religious school. (av) Making appropriate intervention to generate demand for education among the poor.
(b) Raising female enrolment to 65% in 1995 and 90% in the year 2000	(bi) Poverty of parents to properly dress their daughters	(bi) Provision of school dress to female students from poorer families; and strengthening of poverty alleviating programmes.
	(bii) Conservative social attitudes.	(bii) Strengthen Government and non-Govt. programmes for attitudinal change, underscore the value of women education.
(c) Reducing dropout to 40% or less in 1995 and 0% in the year 2000.	(ci) Lack of exposure to pre-primary education.	(ci) Encouragement to private and NGO initiatives providing pre-primary education.
	(cii) Incidence of child labour.	(cii) Strengthen economic programmes to render child labour needless. Enforcement of labour laws prohibiting use of child labour.
	(ciii) Unattractive curriculum/ school environment.	(ciii) Introduction of life relevant, economically relevant & competency based curriculum & continuation of the existing free textbook programme.
(d) Improving quality of education	(d) Lack of properly qualified	(d) Recruitment of properly qualified teachers (females preferred), provision of training to all both pedagogy and subject matter.
(e) Improving management of the primary education sub-sector	(ei) Least involvement of local people in management of nationalized schools- effective managing councils & parent teacher bodies.	(ei) Involvement of the community & local government bodies in management, maintenance & improvement of quality of education & physical facilities.
	(eii) Lack of adequate supervision.	(eii) Suitable administrative reforms for improved supervision.

(f) Promoting non-formal primary education.	(f) Inadequate network.	(f)Encouragement of communities, NGO & other private initiatives promoting non-formal primary education.
(g) Providing second chance to dropout children.		(g) Encouragement and use of communication including interpersonal communication, group dynamics and radio, television, press to strengthen and expand basic education.
(h) Promoting formal & non-formal education through media.		

SUBSECTOR : YOUTH & ADULT EDUCATION

Raising the rate of youth & adult literacy to 45% by 1995 and to 60% or more, by the year 2000.	Lack of adequate network and programmes.	(a) Encouragement to NGOs, cooperatives, employers organization, trade unions, religious bodies and other private initiatives promoting youth & adult literacy. (b) Encourage and help NGOs and cooperatives to conduct regular literacy programmes for their clientele/members. (c) All skill training programmes conducted by various government agencies must possess a literacy component. (d) Involvement of educated youth in literacy programmes particularly after their SSC & HSC examinations through appropriate institutional mechanism. (e) Effective use of mass media, interpersonal communication, group dynamics for promotion and expansion of formal and informal distance education.

Table 1

Primary Education : An overview of Planned Development

Objectives/Targets	FFYP	SFYP	TFYP	Actual Position	
				1973	1987
Universal Primary/ Basic Education : (a) Gross Enrolment ratio	To increase from 58% to 73%	60% to 91%	61% to 70%	58%	61.0%
(b) Enrolment ratio for boys	To increase from 70% to 90%	76.77% to 92.53%	--	76%	71.5%
(c) Enrolment ratio for girls	To increase from 40% to 55%	37.37% to 90.36%	--	40%	49.8%
(d) Enrolment of girls/ boys ratio	--	From 32:68 to 48:52	--	--	44:56
(e) Dropout ratio	From 63% to 52%	--	50%	63%	66%

Source : Various Plan documents and World Bank (1988)

Table 2: REGIONAL ALLOCATIONS TO EDUCATION

	Total Edn. Exp. As. % of GNP
Afghanistan (1980)	2.0
India (1982)	3.2
Indonesia (1981)	2.2
Nepal (1982)	2.6
Pakistan (1983)	2.0
Bangladesh (1983)	1.9
Philippines (1982)	2.0
Malaysia (1982)	7.5
Sri Lanka (1983)	3.0
Thailand (1983)	3.9
Japan (1982)	5.7
South Korea (1983)	5.1
Jordan (1983)	5.8
Morocco (1983)	7.5
YAR (1980)	6.6

Table 3: ALLOCATIONS TO EDUCATION BY SUB-SECTOR 1973-1990 (Crore Taka)

	1st & 2nd Plan 1973-80 Allocation		2nd 5-Yr. Plan 1981-85 Allocation		3rd 5-Yr. Plan 1986-90 Allocation	
Primary Education (I-V) (inc. Mass)	368	(13%)	339	49 41%} (51%) 4%}	563	46%} (48%) 2%}
Secondary Education (VI-X)	35.1	(12%)	86.8	(13%)	125	(11%)
College Education (XI-XII)	17.8	(6%)	19.1	(3%)	58	(5%)
Teacher Preparation	10.2	(4%)	9.5	(1%)	2	(-)
Tech. Vocational Education	59.5	(21%)	88.2	(13%)	160	(14%)
University	69.1	(24%)	48.9	(7%)	100	(9%)
Madrasah	-		2.0	(-)	7.0	(1%)
Scholarships	-		50.0	(8%)	55.0	(5%)
Curriculum and Books	-		1.0	(-)	3.0	(-)
Maintenance	-		-		30.0	(3%)
Planning, etc.	-		-		5.0	(-)
Unallocated	12.0	(4%)	22.0	(3%)	50.0	(5%)
Other /1	49.0	(17%)	2.0	(-)	12.0	(1%)
Total	289.5	(100%)	670.3	(100%)	1170.0	(100%

/1 Includes payments from Department of Public Instruction which preceded directorates in Primary and Secondary Education.

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BANGLADESH
EDUCATION SECTOR REVIEW

Table 4: POLICY OPTIONS

SUB-SECTOR	ENROLLMENT POLICIES	FINANCING POLICIES	QUALITY	NATIONALIZATION POLICIES
I. PRIMARY EDUCATION	RAPID GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE (- % p.a.) + Increases access + Politically attractive - Potentially higher unit cost - Threatens investment in quality - May not be attainable - High recurrent costs MODEST GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE (- % p.a.) + Allows continued quality investment + Probable lower unit costs - Reduced access - Less attractive politically	SHARE OF GOB RESOURCES /1 PRIVATIZATION + May reduce GOB costs - May reduce equity of access - May increase demand for nationalization COST SHARING + Help offset GOB costs - Administrative costs high - Inequity	INVESTMENT TO CONTINUE	COMPLETE NATIONALIZATION + Politically attractive - Increase cost, but not enrollment STABELIZE PROPORTION OF GOV/NON-GOV SCHOOLS + Allows some nationalization to meet demand + Can bring about higher standards before acceptance as Govt. school - May be politically difficult
II. SECONDARY EDUCATION	RAPID GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE (over - % p.a.) + Increases access - Threatens investment in quality - Potentially higher cost per unit of output. SELECTIVE GROWTH FOR UNDERSERVED + Increases access for rural and females - Costs may be higher MODEST ENROLLMENT INCREASE (- % p.a.) + Allows quality investment - May not meet rural/female demand.	SHARE OF GOB RESOURCES /1 PRIVATIZATION + May reduce GOB costs - May reduce equity of access - May increase demand for nationalization COST SHARING + Help offset GOB costs - Administrative costs high - Inequity	INVESTMENT ESSENTIAL	FULL NATIONALIZATION + Politically popular - Will double recurrent costs - High O&M obligations - Remove community support. SELECTIVE NATIONALIZATION (% that meets predetermined standards) + Encourages investment in quality + Controls level of financing - Politically unpopular.
III. COLLEGE EDUCATION	RAPID GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE (over - % p.a.) + Increases access - Takes pressures off Universities. - Escalate costs - Diverts investment from quality SELECTIVE GROWTH FOR UNDERSERVED + Access for rural & female students - Unit costs may be higher MODEST ENROLLMENT GROWTH (- % p.a.) + Allows focus on quality, selectivity. - May not meet rural/female needs - Politically difficult	SHARE OF GOB RESOURCES /1 PRIVATIZATION + May reduce GOB costs - May reduce equity of access - May increase demand for nationalization COST SHARING + Help offset GOB costs - Administrative costs high - Inequity	INVESTMENT ESSENTIAL	FULL NATIONALIZATION + Politically popular - Will double recurrent costs - High O&M obligations - Remove community support. SELECTIVE NATIONALIZATION (% that meets predetermined standards) + Encourages investment in quality + Controls level of financing - Politically unpopular.
IV. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION	MODEST ENROLLMENT GROWTH RATE (over - % p.a.) + Allows investment in quality - Allows limited regional expansion. - Social demand unmet SELECTIVE EXPANSION + Focus on needed skills - Social demand unmet.	SHARE OF GOB RESOURCES /1 PRIVATIZATION + May reduce GOB costs - May reduce equity of access - May increase demand for nationalization COST SHARING + Help offset GOB costs - Administrative costs high - Inequity	INVESTMENT ESSENTIAL	NOT APPLICABLE

/1 Dependent upon other policy decision especially nationalization and enrollment targets.

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Table 5: DEVELOPMENT OF SECTOR POLICIES FOR THE 1990s THE POLICY PROCESS

SUB-SECTOR AND POLICY AREA	POLICY DECISIONS NEEDED	INFORMATION NEEDED	OTHER POLICY AREAS TO BE CONSIDERED	MANAGEMENT CAPACITY NEEDED
RIMARY EDUCATION				
1. ENROLLMENT	Rate of progress toward UPE? Inclusion of poor and girls?	Efficiency improved? Demand levels?	Financing, quality and nationalization.	Data Non-formal involvement
2. FINANCING	Level of financing? Sources of financing?	Economic and fiscal note. Efficiency improved	Enrollment target Nationalization policy	Data
3. QUALITY	Continue investment in quality? At what level of investment?	Has investment paid off?	Financing Enrollment	Data. Ed. & Personnel Supervision Services O & M
4. NATIONALIZATION	Degree and rate?	Political, cost and quality assumptions.	Finaning Enrollment	
ECONDARY EDUCATION				
1. ENROLLMENT	Size? Inclusion of poor and girls?	Student aid, school mapping.	Financing, quality and nationalization.	Data Student and Program
2. FINANCING	Level of financing? Sources of financing?	Economic and fiscal note. Cost sharing options.	Enrollment target Nationalization.	Data
3. QUALITY	Level and nature of investment?	Quality measures: student assessment, dropout, repeater.	Financing Enrollment	Data Ed. & Personnel Services Supervision and Quality Control O&M
4. NATIONALIZATION	Degree of and rate of nationalization?	Political, cost and quality assumptions.	Finaning Enrollment	Data
INTERMEDIATE AND DEGREE COLLEGES				
1. ENROLLMENT	Size? Inclusion of poor and girls?	Structure decisions Social & Eco. need of BD Student aid	Financing, quality and nationalization.	Data Student and Program
2. FINANCING	Level of financing? Sources of financing?	Economic and fiscal note. Cost sharing options.	Enrollment targets Nationalization.	Data
3. QUALITY	Level and nature of investment?	Quality measures: student assessment, dropout, repeater.	Financing Enrollment	Data Ed. & Personnel Services Supervision and Quality Control O&M
4. NATIONALIZATION	Degree of and rate of nationalization?	Political, cost and quality assumptions.	Financing Enrollment	Data
UNIVERSITY LEVEL				
1. ENROLLMENT	Size? Inclusion of poor and women?	Student aid Social & Eco. needs of country.	Financing, quality.	Data. Management Control of Mix Student aid program
2. FINANCING	Level of financing? Sources of financing?	Economic and fiscal note. Cost sharing options.	Enrollment targets.	Data
3. QUALITY	Level and nature of investment?	Program Focus. Quarterly measures	Financing Enrollment	Data. Supervisory & Quality Control Capacity, O & M. Ed. & Personnel Services.
4. NATIONALIZATION	Private University?	Socio-political implications.	Quality, Financing Enrollment	Data

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